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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A PRELIMINARY FRAMEWORK FOR THE EVALUATION OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

by

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A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF ARTS

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Preliminary Framework for the Evaluation of Community Development Programs", submitted by Linda Anne Penoyer in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

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FOR STERLING, JOAN AND GLENN

ABSTRACT

Focusing on improving the evaluation practice in the context of community development programs, this thesis presents a simplified framework which provides community development practitioners with a systematic methodology for evaluating programs in their field. An appraisal of evaluation literature from major social development fields related to community development is undertaken as well as a critique of evaluation literature directly related to the community development field. Assuming that the principles and methods of social action research are most appropriate for handling and evaluating the characteristics of community development programs, an approach called the systems-process-context integrates these features into a conceivable framework. This framework conceptualizes the evaluation process related to community development programs into five major evaluation tasks and provides figures and tables to visually portray and clarify the theoretical premises of the approach. Conclusions and recommendations specific to social action evaluation research as well as to the applicability of the systems-process-context approach to practical studies in community development are offered. An application of the framework is illustrated in relation to an actual case study. Finally, an extensive list of references is provided for those who wish to pursue the area systematically.

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CHAPTER 1

NATURE AND PURPOSES OF EVALUATION IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade or so social programs have increased greatly at all levels of government in Canada, resulting in an increase in the number of Canadian development projects designed to effect social change and to prevent or eliminate social problems. The extent to which these programs are succeeding in meeting social needs can be determined by an evaluation of them. The long term goal of program evaluation is, thus, to improve the impact of continuing and new programs. Consequently, evaluation becomes a potentially important source of knowledge and direction for the policy making and administration process and more directly, for the policy makers and administrators themselves.

In North America, social action programs are increasingly acquiring a community development orientation, as agencies extend their use of the community development process in the planning, implementation and evaluation of their social activities (Burton, 1978). However, it is apparent that evaluation of the impacts and effects of such programs has

been a neglected aspect of the community development process, and of the study of the community development field.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

A change occurred in the political and intellectual environment of the United States at the beginning of the 1960's resulting in a shift in resource allocation from predominantly physical and engineering programs towards socially-oriented ones. In Canada, this appears to have occurred a few years later at around the time of the Centennial of Confederation. The result was an increase in the numbers of government programs designed to develop and enhance the quality of community life in Canada; for example, the Opportunities for Youth, New Horizons and the Local Initiatives Programs . However, with the resulting growth in the absolute and relative size of the government sector in national and local economies has come an increasing demand for greater accountability in government. This demand has become more and more insistent in very recent years. Specifically, demands have focussed upon the need for accountability in all areas of social development and, as one important sub sector of this, in community development. Administrators have faced increasing pressures from agencies acting as funding sources, from professional pressure groups and from clients to provide systematic evaluations of their programs and, in summary, such extraneous pressures have contributed significantly

to a growing interest in evaluation.

However, despite the growing demands for program evaluation, there has been a relative lack of development of sound methodologies for this purpose. It has been suggested that this will seriously inhibit the growth of responsible program planning, policy decisions and funding (Carter and Wharf, 1973). The most recent literature points towards a growing interest in improving evaluation methodologies, especially in the areas of community health and education. Unfortunately, the numbers of effective evaluation studies in the public sector are only just beginning to expand to any significant degree to the community development field, which often does not consider evaluation as an important part of the community development process (Burton, 1978). As a result, there remains a serious absence of evaluation frameworks, incorporating classifications, criteria and indices applicable to meeting the needs, objectives and perspectives of the community development process.

ORIGINS OF THE STUDY AND ITS RELEVANCE TO COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The shortcomings of the state of evaluation practice in community development have been documented by Lafleur (1977). Lafleur's study was primarily a review of available evaluation literature related to community development. He pointed out that the lack of evaluation methodologies with a community

development orientation has been responsible for only a few effective evaluations being performed in the community development field. Moreover, he indicated that those evaluation studies that have been carried out in community development were as low if not lower in calibre than those done in other social fields. Lafleur also noted that the minimal amount of evaluation literature related to the community development field deals primarily with theoretical concepts and reflects an interest mainly in problem definition rather than in ways and means of applying evaluation to community development programs as such,and,in this way, Lafleur agreed with Voth (1975) that evaluation in community development could be generally perceived an "art" rather than as a "science".

Lafleur cited one notable exception, namely, the attempt by Lovell and Riches (1967 - 1968) to develop a framework of characteristics, criteria and indicators for use in evaluating the extent to which the purposes of the community development agency were achieved. As a preliminary review, Lovell and Riches went beyond the simple level of problem definition and the discussion of methods whereby community workers can obtain information, such as how to design a questionnaire. Specifically, they were interested in evaluating the changes which community developers attempt to effect in the community in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Indeed, they argued that qualitative change, while more difficult to assess than quantitative change, is more

important to community development. Lovell and Riches' study is especially significant as it provided an important starting point for the provision of more systematic evaluation approaches in community development which would begin to develop in subsequent years through the application of social action research.

It appears from the growing body of literature, that within the past decade "considerable advancement" has been made as a new generation of community development practitioners has attempted to develop forms of systematic objective evaluation approaches for determining the legitimacy of community development programs, to generally upgrade the quality of community development evaluation reports and, most importantly, to demonstrate accountability, since, clearly, when the question of funding becomes scarce, it is allocated only to those who can best demonstrate advantageous results (Reyburn, 1975). Furthermore, such systematic methodologies reflect many of the attributes of social action research whose application appear to be more appropriate for evaluating community development programs than other forms of traditional research, such as pure, basic, or operational (Burton, 1978). For example, in social action research, there is an emphasis upon the utilization of a systems approach (Carter and Wharf, 1973), which permits the administrator to handle conceptually the value laden nature of program evaluation and of the evaluation process itself. Burton (1978: 45) suggests that such approaches

can "beneficially incorporate many of the same features and characteristics found in the community development process itself". His use of a systems approach to evaluation in community development allows him to differentiate between criteria of performance/outcome and criteria of value. The latter emphasize qualitatitive assessment, the importance of which to community development was recognized earlier by Lovell and Riches (1968: 4).

However, Burton (1978) like many other community development practitioners, is reluctant to determine more precise measures and simply points out as did Lafleur, that such undertakings should be performed in order to provide for more systematic evaluation frameworks in community development. It is this desire to develop practical evaluation frameworks and procedures for use in community development that has prompted the present study. Its aim, in short, is to improve the state of evaluation practice in the community development field, by attempting to design a simplified evaluation framework for use by practitioners.

STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

It has been suggested by Lafleur (1977: 246) that there is a great need for the development of a framework "with common classifications, and perhaps criteria and indices" with which to evaluate community development programs. It is proposed that such an evaluation device should be based on a

systems approach as advocated by Burton (1978) and should give equal consideration to qualitative and quantitative measures as proposed by Lovell and Riches (1967) if it is to assume a community development orientation. However, such measures of internal accountability, that is, those related to the achievement of the objectives of a program, are not sufficient. Community development administrators must take into account the larger environments as they cannot and should not avoid measures of external accountability (e.g. related to the objectives and goals of those who fund programs) upon which the financial survival of their programs is dependent. The majority of community development programs in Canada is funded by agencies of all three levels of government. These agencies must be able to evaluate programs in a way which not only demonstrates effectiveness in bringing about changes in the quality of people's lives in a community, but also indicate efficiency in doing this relative to alternative uses of program resources. This necessitates the formulation of an evaluation framework which considers all the contextual dimensions of the social system revolving around and within a community development program (e.g. government, political and administrative contexts). Moreover, such a framework integrating these important dimensions within its design can aid the practitioner in more realistically evaluating the success of changes effected in the individual and community and should do so both in quantitative and qualitative terms

through applying the techniques of social action research.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

In the process of knowledge building for community development, one of the strengths of the field lies in its interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary nature: the opportunity to choose from other social science fields and social or human service fields the knowledge applicable to community development evaluations. The strength of this orientation is the potential flexibility such choice gives to the field to modify and apply other evaluation methodologies within a framework designed specifically in our work with community development programs.

The development of the problem statement for the present project requires the conduct of the following research tasks. First, a critical appraisal of evaluation literature from the major social development fields such as extension, social work, health and education will be performed, in order to identify and define common variables relative to the nature of evaluation, its purposes, related concepts (e.g. evaluation research) and especially its application through frameworks related to the four levels at which evaluation of social action programs are usually undertaken: namely, input, process, product and context (Longest, 1975). Second, an appraisal of evaluation literature in community development will be undertaken in order to develop a statement and

definitions related to the community development process and to the role of evaluation in this. Third, an attempt will be made to synthesize the material covered in the first two tasks in order to clarify the basic premises constituting the framework developed within the following chapter. Fourth, an outline of an analytical framework based on the variables identified as significant from the first three tasks will be identified. This framework will be developed at the following levels: first, the identification of major evaluation components; second, the identification of both quantitative and qualitative dimensions necessary for the evaluation of community development programs based on task and process objectives; third, the identification of appropriate elements within the established evaluation dimensions; and fourth, the identification of quantitative and qualitative measures of these factors (such as use made of existing services or responsible participation by group members). Conclusions and/or a commentary on the potential value of the analytical framework for use in the evaluation of the impact of community development programs will constitute the final element in the study.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Since the fields of community development and evaluation are both ones in which some disagreement exists regarding the nature and focus of the field and the precise meanings of

central terms, it is essential that this study begin by defining key concepts as they will be employed throughout the study. The specific concern is with two broad concepts: first, the concept of community development, with its related programs and relationships to the notion of "innovative" administration; and, second, the concept of evaluation and the related concern of evaluation research, as well as its relationship to social action research and community development. Each of these two broad concepts is employed in an activity which consumes the energies of a community development practitioner associated with a government or quasi-government agency whose responsibility is to plan, implement and more importantly, evaluate community development programs.

A Definition of Community Development

There are almost two hundred available definitions for community development! This is so because, according to Aldred (1977: 241) "the conceptions of community development are as varied today as the circumstances and situations in which they are applied". In other words, it is argued that what constitutes community development is, in effect, case specific. However, there are two points of consensus upon which all conceptualizations appear to agree; first, that it is a process of purposive social change directed at the community level; and second, that is differentiated from other theories of change processes in that it is assumes that community citizens should participate in the decision-making processes of defining and meeting their own felt needs.

Community Development Programs

Those activities which promote, sustain and support community action through collaborative efforts between the citizens themselves and the community development practitioner are facilitated in Canada through the implementation of programs designed to create both quantitative and qualitative change. Such a definition of community development programs utilized in this thesis is supported by Hynam (1972: 16) whereby . . .

> as a philosophy and method, community development offers a way of involving people more fully in the life of their communities. It generates scope and initiatives which enable people to participate

> creatively in the economic, social and cultural life of a nation. It provides above all a basis for a more profound understanding and more effective use of the democratic process. These are essential elements of Canada's social policy. These principles underlie our current social programmes which in essence are designed to make it possible for people to overcome limitations in their environment.

Such programs facilitate interventions aimed at groups or institutions whose goals are intended to meet the needs of people and develop human resources within the existing economic and social system. Here the stress is on what Dunham (1970) has terms "process goals" rather than "task oriented goals" or concrete objectives. In other words, their main intention is broad scale social change at the community level rather than instrumental intervention aimed at the individual as, for example, in clinical social work. These programs can become highly formalized and often relate to such areas as health and welfare (e.g. multi-service centres), agriculture, industry, urban development (e.g. citizen participation) and recreation. Also, community development programs can relate to a number of informally organized services (e.g. voluntary associations). It should be also pointed out that community development programs reflect an innovative nature, an emphasis on trying out and learning the nature of such programs which makes them open to careful scrutiny for possible improvements and thus, there is more opportunity and demand for evaluation (Carter and Wharf, 1973).

The effective administration of programs becomes the responsibility of the community development practitioner

associated with a government or quasi-government agency. The problem for the practitioner then becomes how he can reconcile any possible arising conflicts within established policies without losing sight of his beliefs in the theoretical premises of the community development process whereby people participate in the decision-making process of defining and meeting their own needs. The answer lies in what I have termed an "innovative" administrative approach to be adopted by the community development practitioner. This concept necessitates involvement and input from the people and, in this way, the administrator can work with people rather than on or for people (Gibson, 1977: 31), this being the prime responsibility of a community development practitioner. The advantages of utilizing such an orientation have been well documented by Frederickson (1975) who equates the principle of the community development process with those of modern administration. Frederickson contends that traditional development administration has in the past been overly centralized, authoritative and technological, but that it is making a transition in the direction of the principles inherent within the community development process which recognize the need for organizations to be structured in a way so as to remain responsible to people's needs. Thus, through an "innovative" administrative approach, practitioners responsible for program evaluations should always work within a framework which facilitates input from the people rather than relying on an overwhelming amount of technology.

A Definition of Evaluation

There appear to be as many definitions available for evaluation as there are for community development. Confusion appears to arise most often around methodological concerns and an acceptance of what is "scientific" and what is not. For example, Suchman (1973) defines "scientific" as implying the use of experimental and control groups, whereas to Hayes (1966) the term simply implies objective, comprehensive and systematic consideration of those factors related to the activities of a programme. In yet another approach, Sherwood (1967) extends the meaning of scientific evaluation to encompass those skills and strategies beyond social research. These differing definitions simply serve to illustrate that evaluation is not a unitary concept. Indeed, it is argued that the term should maintain flexibility so as to meet varied program needs and conditions. However, amongst the discrete definitions, most conclude that an application of judgment to programme outcomes plays the primary role in the evaluation process. According to Steele (1975: 14) evaluation is . . .

> a process of forming judgements about programs using criteria of standards and descriptions of what occurred and resulted in the program.

More specifically, according to Lafleur (1977: 20). . .

> community development evaluation is the act and reporting of judgements of the merits of the techniques and activities.

Thus, the emphasis upon the act and reporting of judgments related to community development programs based on criteria and standards will be the working definition of evaluation used throughout this thesis.

The Purposes of Evaluation

A review of the literature suggests that the purposes of evaluation may serve one or more of the following functions as stated by Suchman (1973: 8);

1. To clarify and re-examine program objectives and underlying assumptions.

2. To examine more thoroughly the operation and content of a program so as to clarify its essential parts.

3. To re-evaluate the theoretical program base particularly the ways in which principles are turned into practices.

4. To develop new hypotheses for future research.

5. To develop a more critical attitude on the part of program personnel including the chance to make suggestions for improving the program.

6. To increase staff morale and committment as a result of their efforts to improve programs.

The purposes of evaluation may be undermined for one or more of the following reasons outlined by Weiss (1973: 10-11):

1. The program content is not questionable.

2. The program has no apparent clear orientation.

3. Large discrepancies exist in program goals.

4. Evaluation is too costly.

5. Illegitimate reasons exist for undertaking an evaluation such as trying to postpone decision-making, to avoid responsibility, to enhance the prestige of an agency, to fill grant requirements, to undermine program director efforts, to attempt "eye washing" (e.g. evaluating only the good parts), or to "submarine" or destroy the objectivity of a program, especially for political reasons.

Preformative, Formative and Summative Evaluation

Further distinctions must be made at this point with regard to theories of evaluation. As a generic term, evaluative decisions can be made prior to the implementation of a program. This is referred to as the pre-formative evaluation stage (Alkin and Fitz-Gibbon, 1975: 4, Figure 1) and includes two major activities; program planning evaluations and needs assessment.

After a program is implemented it requires monitoring and modifying in order to make it work as effectively as possible. Activities here focus on implementation evaluation and progress evaluation which constitute the formative evaluation stage (Alkin and Fitz-Gibbon, 1975).

Once a program has undergone several cycles of formative evaluation it stabilizes and is adopted as an ongoing program. At this stage, summative evaluation, an assessment of a program's success, is undertaken through two separate evaluation activities

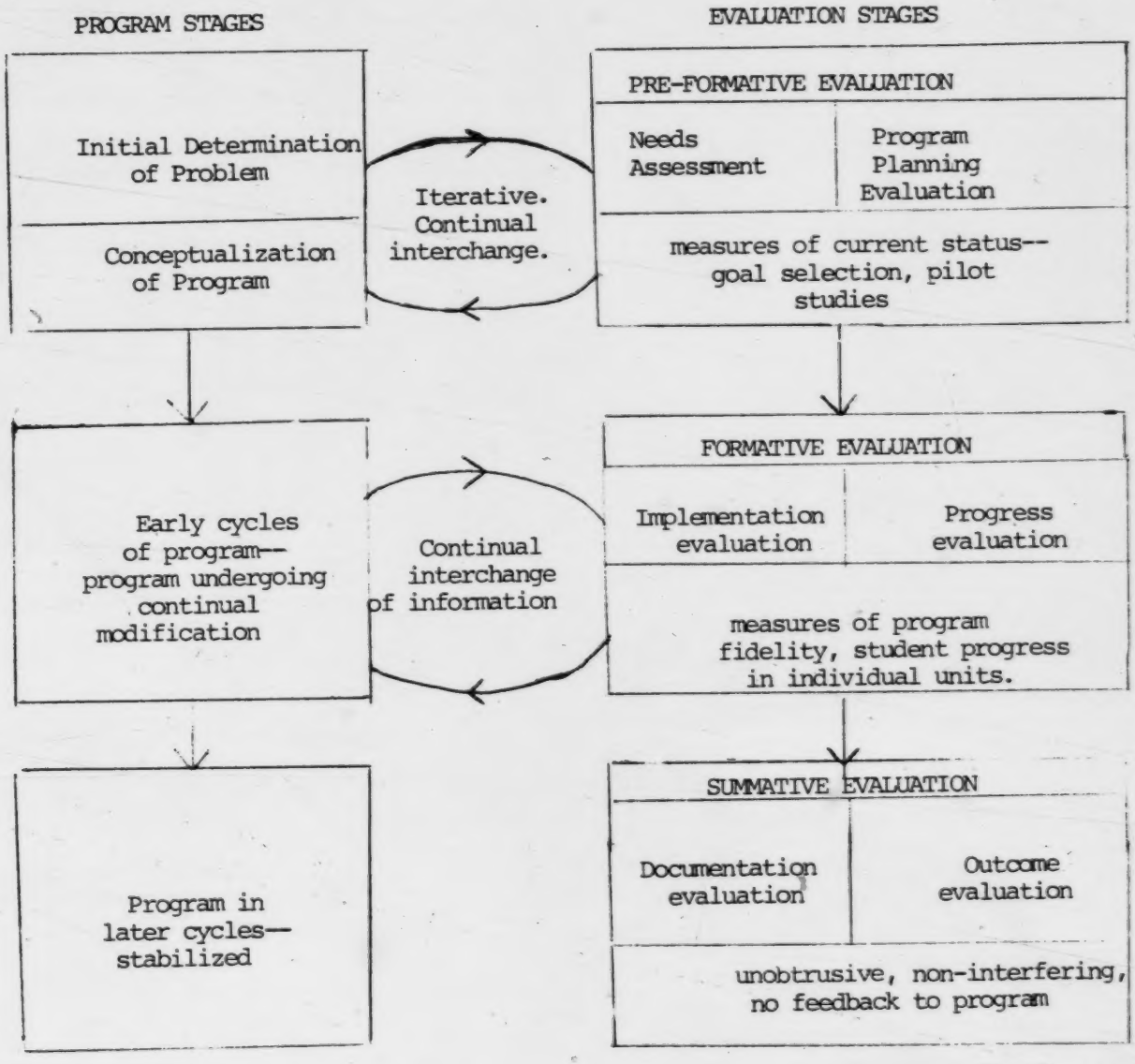

Figure 1 The Relationships Between Evaluation Activities and the Stages of A Developing Program (From Alkin Fitz-Gibbon, 1975)

known as documentation and outcome evaluation (Alkin and Fitz-Gibbon, 1975).

Evaluation and Evaluation Research

If evaluation is then primarily the making and reporting of judgements related to the success or failure of a program, then evaluation research can be simply defined as research relating to evaluation. However, this is clearly too broad and general a definition. Something more specific is required. Many authors stress that the difference between evaluation and evaluation research lies in the fact that the latter applies systematic techniques, criteria and measures to acquire objectivity in the process of judging programme outcomes. According to Cherns (1969) evaluation research covers a variety of techniques and models which he has categorized as pure research, basic research, operational research and social action research. According to Carter and Wharf (1973: 31) social action research is characterized by the following attributes; it emphasizes the introduction and observation of planned change; it is problem centered, emphasizing some improvement or some socially desirable goal; it makes partial use of empirical science; it emphasizes a systems approach; it is most effective when applied in complex, rapidly changing systems; it is concerned with variables which appear to make some difference in the performance of the system (e.g. utilization of human resources, control, and leadership collaboration and

conflict); it focuses on the quality and nature of relationships with the client group or organization which is the target of the planned change; and the relationship between the action researcher and evaluation presents unique role requirements. As it is the attributes of action research which appear to have been primarily applied in carrying out evaluation studies related to community development programs, it will be the type of evaluation research referred to in this thesis.

CHAPTER 2

A CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF EVALUATION LITERATURE FROM SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT FIELDS RELATED TO COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Based on the assumption that community development is a sub sector of social development and its activities reflect those of a social action variety, then there is value in examining the ways in which other related social development fields (e.g. extension, education, social work, community health) have applied the evaluation methodologies of social action research.

The material in this chapter is organized to cover what appears from the literature review to be the four levels at which evaluation of social action programs can and should be undertaken: namely, input evaluation, process evaluation, product evaluation and context evaluation.

Specifically, as borrowed from Longest (1975: 51-53), input evaluation refers to the resource requirements of action programs as related to the setting of objectives. Process evaluation refers to examining the program's operation, process and procedures. As it is the most demanding, time consuming and difficult evaluation level, it will receive the greatest attention in this appraisal in order to reveal its complex elements such as the specification of measures, and

choice of study and research designs that serve as an important intervening variable between input and product levels in order for a complete evaluation to be undertaken. Product evaluation refers to how well the objectives of a program have been met. Finally, as Longest concludes, in evaluation research the context level provides important information for completing the research design. It assumes that the hypothesis, strategies and likely outcomes from within an evaluation study are dependent upon particular contextual elements (e.g. the results of an action program may differ in a social system with multipower structures as compared to one controlled by an elite group). Hence, the nature of contextual dimensions helps to provide for a more objective assessment for the input, process and product levels of evaluation.

These levels are interdependent and it appears that they consider the following major key areas of decision-making faced by the evaluator which must be examined and interrelated into a framework for undertaking a comprehensive evaluation: first, the setting of overall program objectives in relationship to the theoretical premises and financial concerns of the program; second, the conceptualization and measurement of program objectives as related to needs assessment and program planning evaluation (preformative evaluative stage); third, an examination of the implementation and progress of a program towards meeting its stated objectives (formative evaluation stage) which examination of process has implications for the choice of

overriding study design (e.g. systems or goal based approach), the selection of research design (e.g. experimental design or descriptive, dynamic causal models) and the selection of evaluation components such as qualitative and quantitative measures; fourth, an examination of the activities of documentation and outcome and their relationship towards assessing the end product of a program (summative evaluation stage); fifth, in light of the importance of context, will be examined those important organizational and socio-political factors within and revolving around a social action program.

It then follows that an examination of these four evaluations levels--input, process, product, context--as well as their corresponding activities within the preformative, formative and summative evaluation stages will be the primary objective for this appraisal and from this examination will emerge a comprehensive review of the evaluation field, both in theory and practice to ascertain not only its present state but its potential application to the field of community development. This will assist community development practitioners towards examining related factors between their field and other social development areas and will provide them with guidelines for developing a framework specifically designed to undertake a comprehensive evaluation of community development programs through applied social action research.

INPUT EVALUATION LEVEL

The Setting of Objectives

The conceptualization and measurement of a program's overall objectives is the first requirement in evaluation research (Carter and Wharf, 1973). This is often a difficult undertaking with social action programs, as often, according to Carter and Wharf (1973: 35), such programs often contain more than one objective, or statements of objectives are absent; are too generally stated; are unrealistic or unachievable; or are partial or inaccurate.

The problematic task of setting objectives can be alleviated when it is done in accordance with the theoretical premises of the program which can act as an important guideline in what to measure and how to measure it (Carter and Wharf, 1973: 36). For example, in order to eliminate the confusion in measuring multiple objectives which is characteristic of most social action programs a useful procedure is to order them into three different categories: immediate, intermediate and ultimate goals as proposed by Suchman (1957: 51). Each category of objectives has its own set of criteria measured in terms of as one moves from a higher to a lower objective each lower category must assume all assumptions made for objectives above it. Each of the three categories contains a variety of criteria to which the failure or success of a program can be attributed based on effort, adequacy of performance, efficiency

and process.

The product of the preceeding analysis on objective setting can be usefully structured in some sort of hierarchical scheme which ranks several cognition levels of primary and supporting activities. One of the best examples from the existing literature of such a product can be found in Claude Bennett's (1975: 7-12) hierarchy of evidence for program evaluation in extension programs.

Bennett establishes seven categories of criteria based on a "chain of events" for evaluating the objectives of extension programs extracted from their thoeretical premises. Similar to all action programs, extension programs usually have many objectives occurring within several or all levels of the hierarchy illustrated in Figure 2. Through the following scheme, Bennett offers guidelines in choosing evidence within these categories. First in the chain are inputs (resource expended by Extension). Activities are produced from these inputs which involve people. People have both negative and positive reactions to the program which initiate changes in their knowledge, attitudes, skills and aspirations (KASA). When people apply KASA changes to their living and working environment a change in practices can occur from which are elicited end results. These end results should encompass achieving the ultimate aims of the Extension program. Within each category Bennett provides examples of criteria related to the objectives of that particular level of the hierarchy.

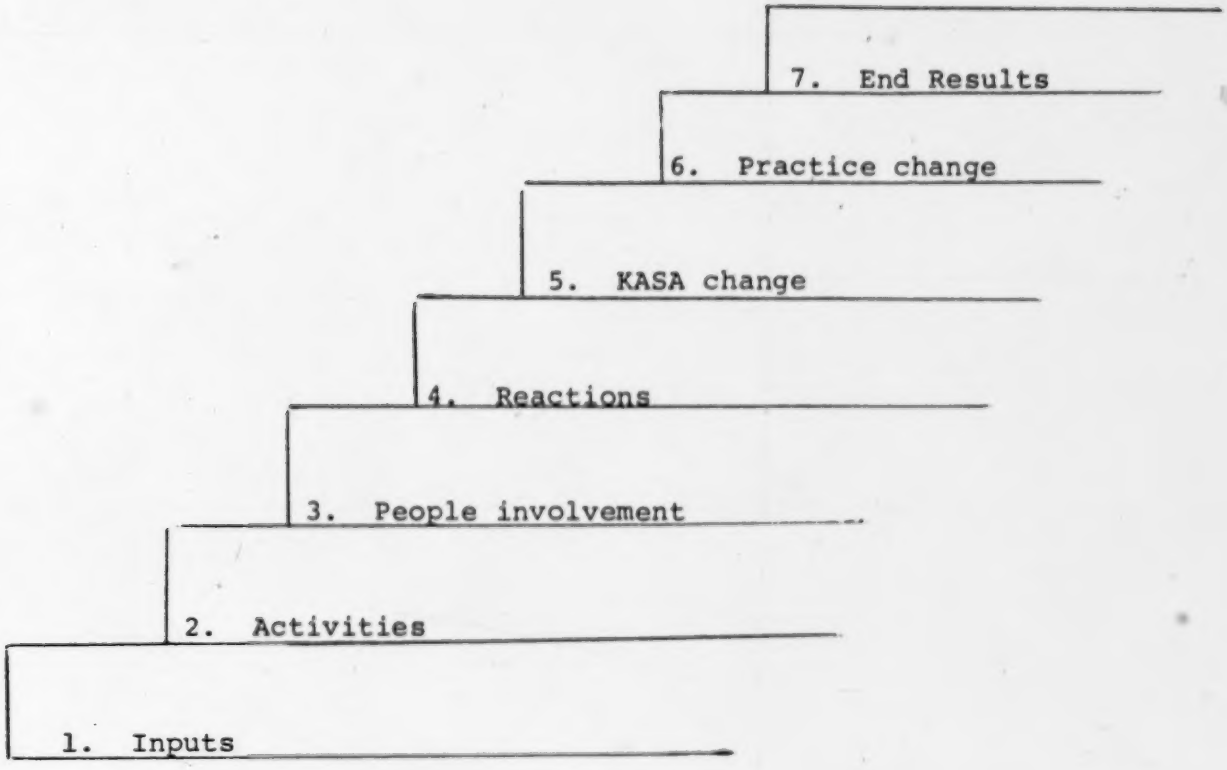

Figure 2. A hierarchy of evidence for extension program evaluations (From Bennett, 1975)

Bennett contends that people value a program more if nearly all program objectives or plans are met. Moreover, a more valued program is more likely to attract additional funding or "its objectives are likely to be retained, intensified or broadened". Bennett offers the following guidelines which are helpful in deciding how to evaluate a program: first, the evidence of program impact becomes stronger as the hierarchy is ascended; second, evaluations are strengthened by assessing Extension levels; third, it is more difficult and costly to obtain higher evidence and 'harder' evidence.

In short, it appears that the setting of objectives can be performed more easily if it is done in accordance with the theory extracted from the overall program plan that provides guidelines on what to measure and how to measure it.

Also, in addition to theory, the priorizing of "what gets evaluated" should tie in with financial considerations (Carter and Wharf, 1973). This important aspect is "the extent to which the evaluator depends on the financial commitment of the organization and/or the administrator to a thorough evaluation". Discrepancies can arise between the objectives of the evaluation and the project that can lead to confusion surrounding the financial feasibility of carrying out an evaluation. For example, often not enough funds are set aside for meeting the costs involved in conducting a feasible evaluation or often many view evaluation research as too costly or of little practical value and would like to see the dollars spent on the

social problem itself rather than any research associated with it. In order to prevent these obstacles, a consideration of program costs can be usefully determined relative to achievements based on consideration of the following factors listed by Carter and Wharf (1973: 68-69):

1. Time required for implementation and effective operation.
2. Requirements for additional skilled manpower as compared to availability.
3. Input upon present manpower in terms of additional training, changed workload and restructured roles.
4. Costs of capital outlays for facilities.
5. Remodelling or obsolescence of present equipment and facilities.
6. Operations and maintenance costs after initial investment has been made.

The input evaluation level incorporates two other major activities which help to more systematically conceptualize and measure program objectives. These two activities are needs assessment and program planning evaluation (defined as pre-formative evaluation activities), the former of which provides an important informational base or input into the conceptualization of objectives and the latter of which helps to intensify the subsequent evaluation activities to measure objectives in accordance with the way in which a program is planned. It is toward these pre-formative evaluation activities that this thesis will now direct its attention.

Needs Assessment

According to Alkin and Fitz-Gibbon (1975: 3) "in needs assessment, the evaluator provides information on the perceived importance of relevant goal areas, their current status and the relative priorities of each".

Siegel, Attkisson and Carson (1978: 229) state that needs assessment is conceptually and operationally different from evaluation in the fact that it is an environmental monitoring system. They describe the differences between program evaluation and needs assessment in the following way. According to Siegel et al. (1978: 224), program evaluation is:

1. The process of making reasonable judgements about program effort, effectiveness, efficiency and adequacy;
2. Based on systematic data collection and analysis;
3. Designed for use in program management, external accountability and future planning;
4. With special focus on accessibility, acceptability, awareness, availability, comprehensiveness, continuity, integration and cost of services.

In contrast, they define need assessment as:

> An environmental monitoring system that is . . .
> Designed to measure and make judgements about program relevance, adequacy and appropriateness.
> Based on systematic collection and analysis of information.
> Regarding the needs for health and human services.
> As filtered through multiple levels of societal perspectives.
> As generated through multiple measurement approaches.

However, despite their conceptual and operational differences, it is important to note that program evaluation and needs

assessment are related processes each giving an information base that is critical for the effective assessment of social action programs.(Attkisson, 1978: 224).

There exists a variety of approaches for conducting needs assessments which have been neatly outlined by Bell, Wharheit and Schwab (1978: 70) as: the key informant approach, the rates under treatment approach; the social indicators approach; the group approaches (e.g. the community forum); and the social area or field survey approach (e.g. citizen survey). The next section will review the latter two approaches which emphasize how to conduct community needs assessments as they, unlike the first three approaches, focus on eliciting information from the entire community rather than a select group of individuals. In this way, the action researcher interested in community development will be familiarized with those approaches that he will most often use when conducting a community needs assessment (Mitchell, 1977) in order to receive an informational base or input that is important to assess effectively the objectives of community development programs.

The citizen survey, which is one type of social area survey, is a technique which accommodates broader citizen and community participation in determining service priorities and identification of needs. This type of information can be yielded from anonymous through-the-mail, stratified random sampling or direct interview-based methods. The advantage of this approach is that it provides scientifically valid and

reliable information from individual community members regarding specific information about their own service needs and utilization patterns. It is also the most flexible of assessment techniques and the most direct method of elicting relative and quantitative estimates of needs. On the other hand, it often demands considerable resources, expertise and organizational support from the service delivery system, respondents are often reluctant to answer questions, and the validity and reliability of questionnaires and measuring instruments are often questionable.

Beyond the survey approach, community views can be elicited through a group approach, such as the community forum which according to Coursey (1977: 49) is an approach that relies on the perception of any person living or working in a community whose input provides a reliable resource of the sociological and psycholgical aspects of that community. People are asked to appraise the need and service patterns of those living in the community. Forum studies are designed around a series of public meetings to elicit views from as many people as possible on a single issue. The meetings are structured to encourage spontaneity and candor on the part of the participants. However, some sort of guidance is created by the organizers who, prior to the forum, outline the specific objectives of the program and prepare a set of questions to which the residents respond. Ideas and comments are recorded during the meetings and residents answer questionnaires regarding the

service priorities and needs of the community. The results of the forum are publicized through the mass media, extensive mailings and contacts with organizations such as churches and schools. Advantages of the forum are its low cost and flexible, simple design. It also enlarges the circle of informants to include as wide a cross-section of the community citizens as possible. Finally, it provides a catalyst for the initiation of plans and actions about the human service needs in the community. As a result, a more effective, broader based community approach to needs assessment, the allocation of resources and the establishment of priorities can take place. The community forum and survey approaches can be used together to elicit community views and in combination they provide one of the most reliable mechanisms for acquiring a convergent analysis of needs and priorities.

Siegel and Attkisson (1978: 215) noted that the approaches to community needs assessment have in the past not arisen from co-operative ventures between citizens and professional personnel. The result has been as Coursey (1977: 68) stated: . . .

> a gap between the programs of many of our human service agencies and the needs of those they are designed to serve.

However, significant attempts have been made to make community needs assessments a more co-operative effort between human service management and those it is designed to serve. In this way, it appears that such approaches are acquiring more of a

community development orientation whereby citizens actively participate in the decision-making processes by defining their own felt needs and thereby assist in providing input into the evaluation process.

Program Planning Evaluation

According to Alkin and Fitz-Gibbon (1975: 3) during program planning evaluation the focus is on first, the provision of evaluative information that might be used in achieving the desired goals/objectives and second, on "the development of the planning document depicting subsequent evaluation activities and describing in its entirety the instructional system to be utilized". Organizations must plan their activities within an overall framework within which decisions can be made in such a way that they have a rational relationship to each other. There exists a variety of concepts related to the nature of the planning process which range from the very traditional, simple formats such as straight line planning to those more complex types that are more characteristic of social action programs (Carter and Wharf, 1973) such as the feedback approach.

The following discussion will outline the various types of planning processes and examine the nature and relationship of evaluative decisions towards measuring objectives as they exist within the overall process in which the program is planned.

According to E. Hamilton-Smith (1974: 15-24) many organizations plan programs in an ad-hoc way or through the concept of straight line planning (Figure 3). This planning process involves an overall evaluation or a descriptive "stocktaking" before implementing new plans through a "cross-sectional" evaluation whereby the examination of organizational effectiveness is undertaken at one particular point in its history (Hamilton-Smith 1974: 16). This type of evaluation provides the basis for an organization to reassess its goals, methods and priorities, and also to reformulate its planning approach in such a way as to provide for future operation of a "feedback" nature.

The straight line approach is a rather over-simplified planning process and rarely are social action programs planned in such a way. According to Carter and Wharf (1973: 90) social action programs are characterized by "cyclical features" which require that earlier questions should be asked such as why a certain cycle had been chosen for evaluation, and allow the similarity of program goals to those of previous cycles to be examined. Such evaluation activities require constant feedback between the phases of the planning process whereby adjustments take place between each of the steps. In this way steps do not proceed sequentially but concurrently (Figures 4 and 5).

Monitoring and Evaluation in the Feedback Process

According to Hamilton-Smith (1974: 22) monitoring is a technique used within the overall process of evaluation through a feedback

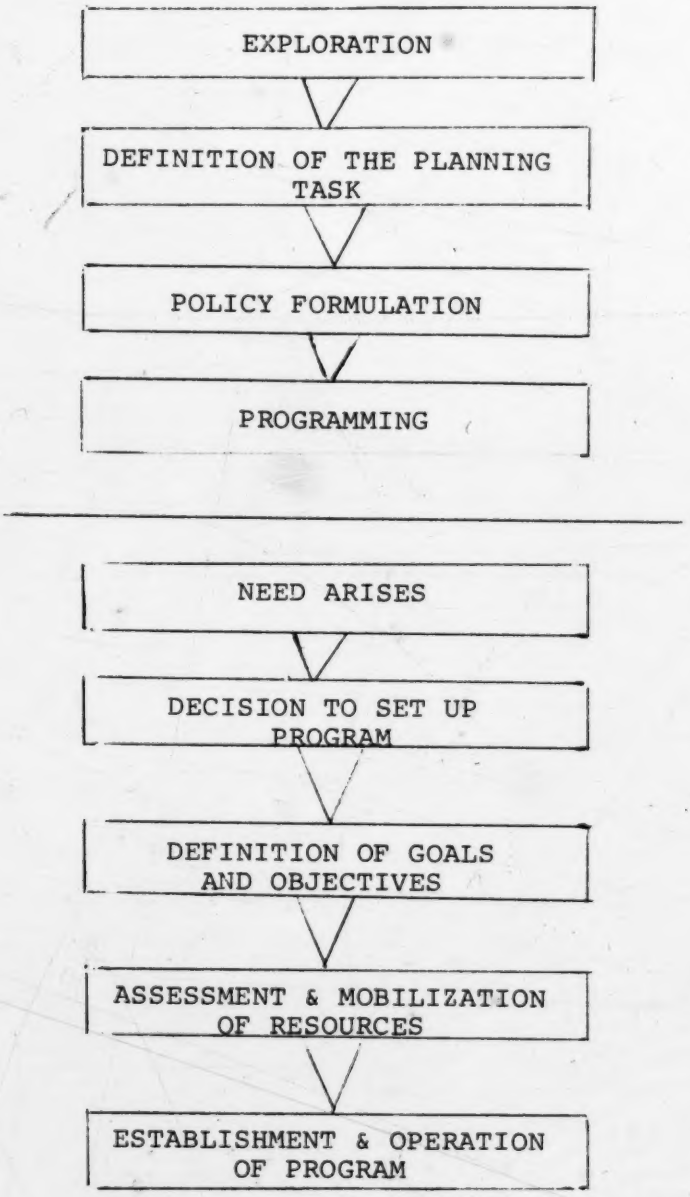

Figure 3 Examples of straight-line formulations of the planning process for delivery of community programs (From E. Hamilton-Smith, 1974).

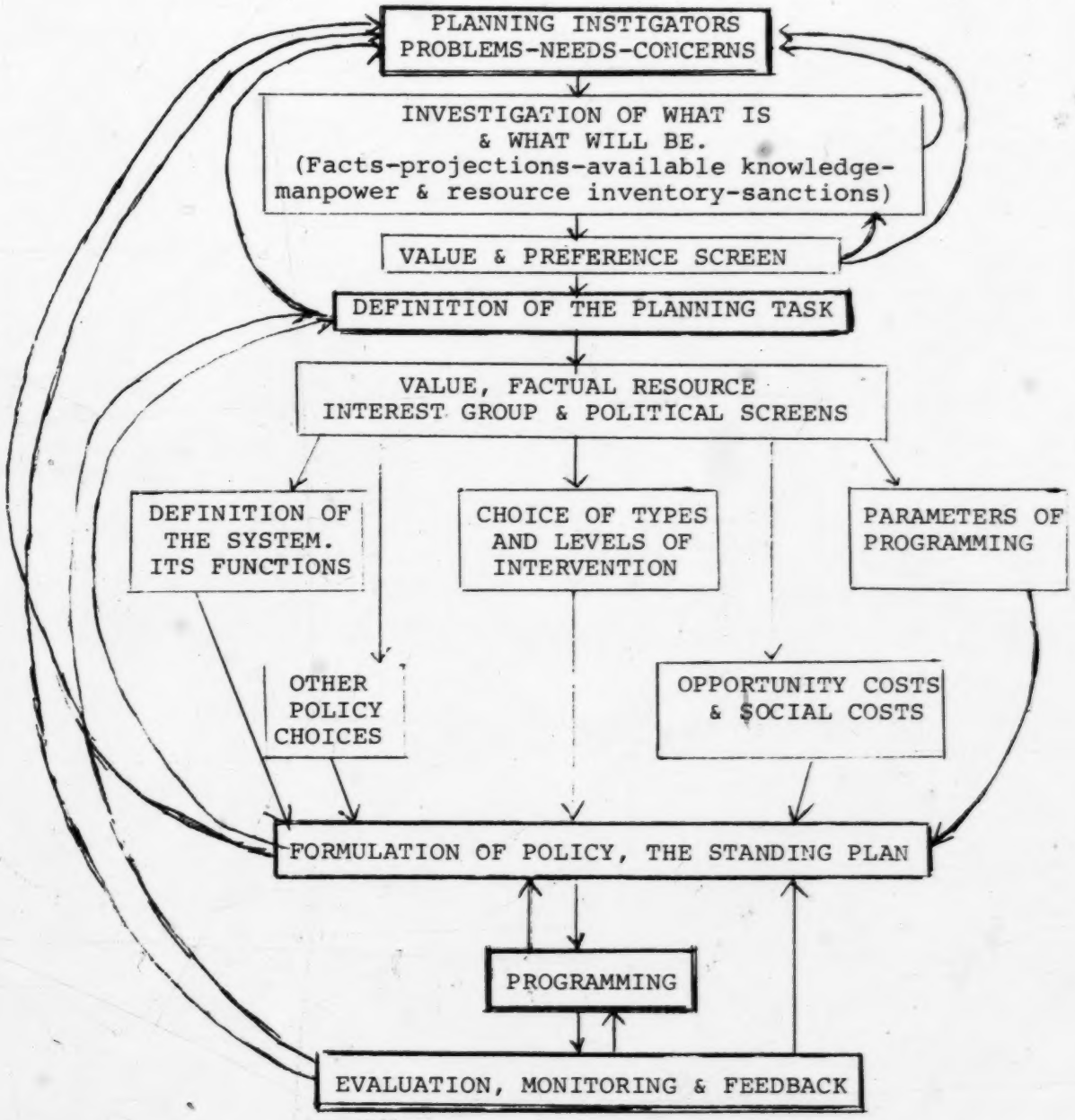

Figure 4 The feedback conception of the planning process for delivery of community programs (From Kahn, 1969).

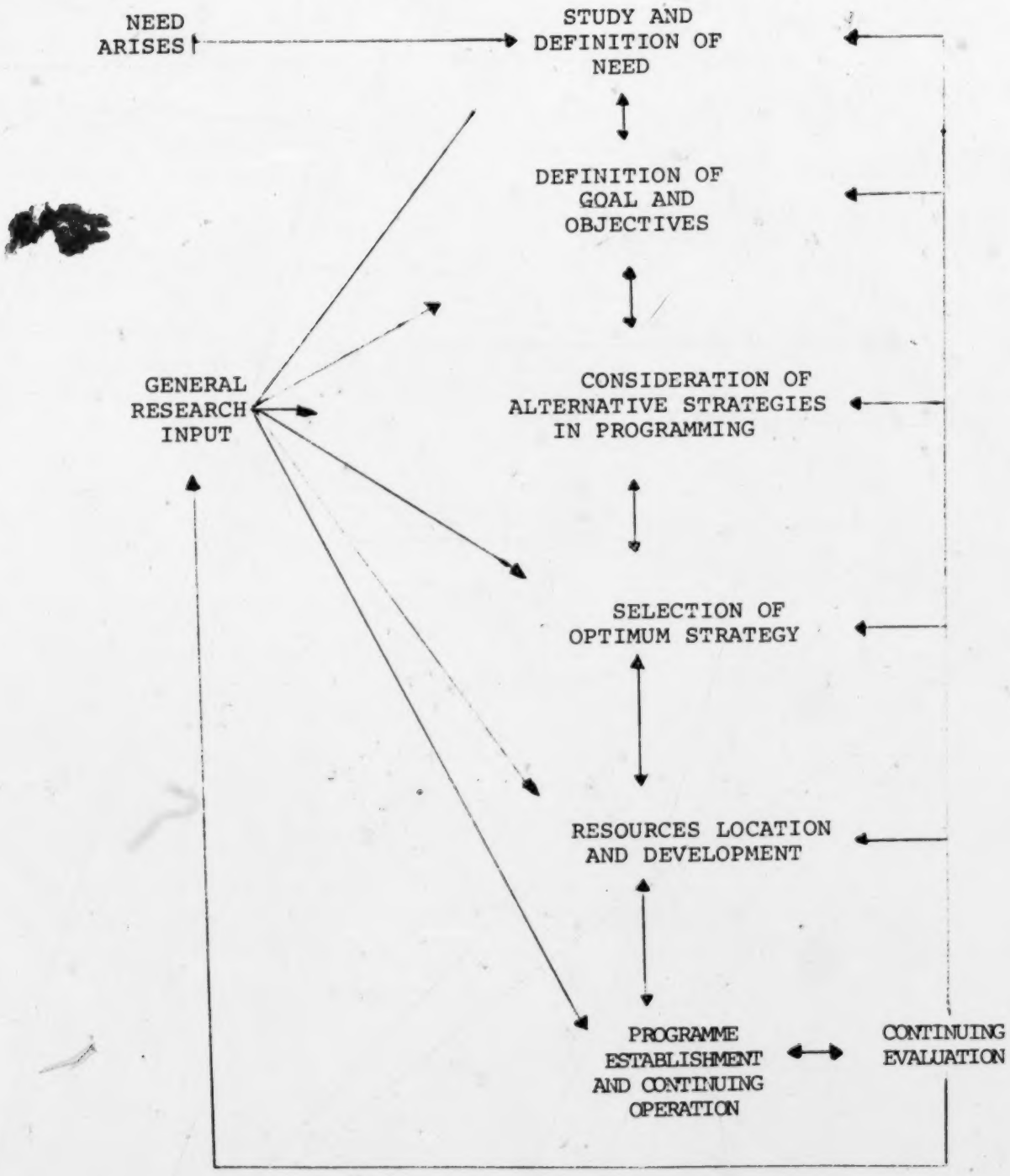
NEED ARISES
STUDY AND DEFINITION OF NEED
DEFINITION OF GOAL AND OBJECTIVES
GENERAL RESEARCH INPUT
CONSIDERATION OF ALTERNATIVE STRATEGIES IN PROGRAMMING
SELECTION OF OPTIMUM STRATEGY
RESOURCES LOCATION AND DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMME ESTABLISHMENT AND CONTINUING OPERATION
CONTINUING EVALUATION

Figure 5 Evaluation as part of the "feedback" formulation of planning for delivery of community programs (From E. Hamilton-Smith, 1974).

approach. Monitoring is defined as the systematic collection of information relevant to the functioning of an organization or program. Evaluation in turn uses this information to make intelligent judgements concerning the organization's or program's effectiveness, its goals, and similar issues, and, in this way, the two concepts are interrelated. Monitoring is an integral part of evaluation in a "feedback" approach to planning (Figures 4-6). The information it produces must be communicated to those dealing with the process of decision-making and program implementation and they must assess it and utilize it to make better decisions or to develop better programs. Monitoring plays an important role within the "feedback" planning process. A limitation of the feedback approach is that it can break down when there are interruptions in the communication process or obstacles arise which affect the utilization of the information which is being communicated.

Evaluation and Interactive Planning

In inter-active formulation, (Figure 7) E. Hamilton-Smith (1974: 2-23) states that component of the process shown with being concerned with data collection and analysis corresponds to the monitoring and will at the same be collecting other data as portrayed in (Figure 6). Moreover, this component of the process will be constantly interacting and communicating with the rest of the components. In this way, the definition of objectives, the statement of goals and philosophy, the formulation of planning and the implementation of planning are

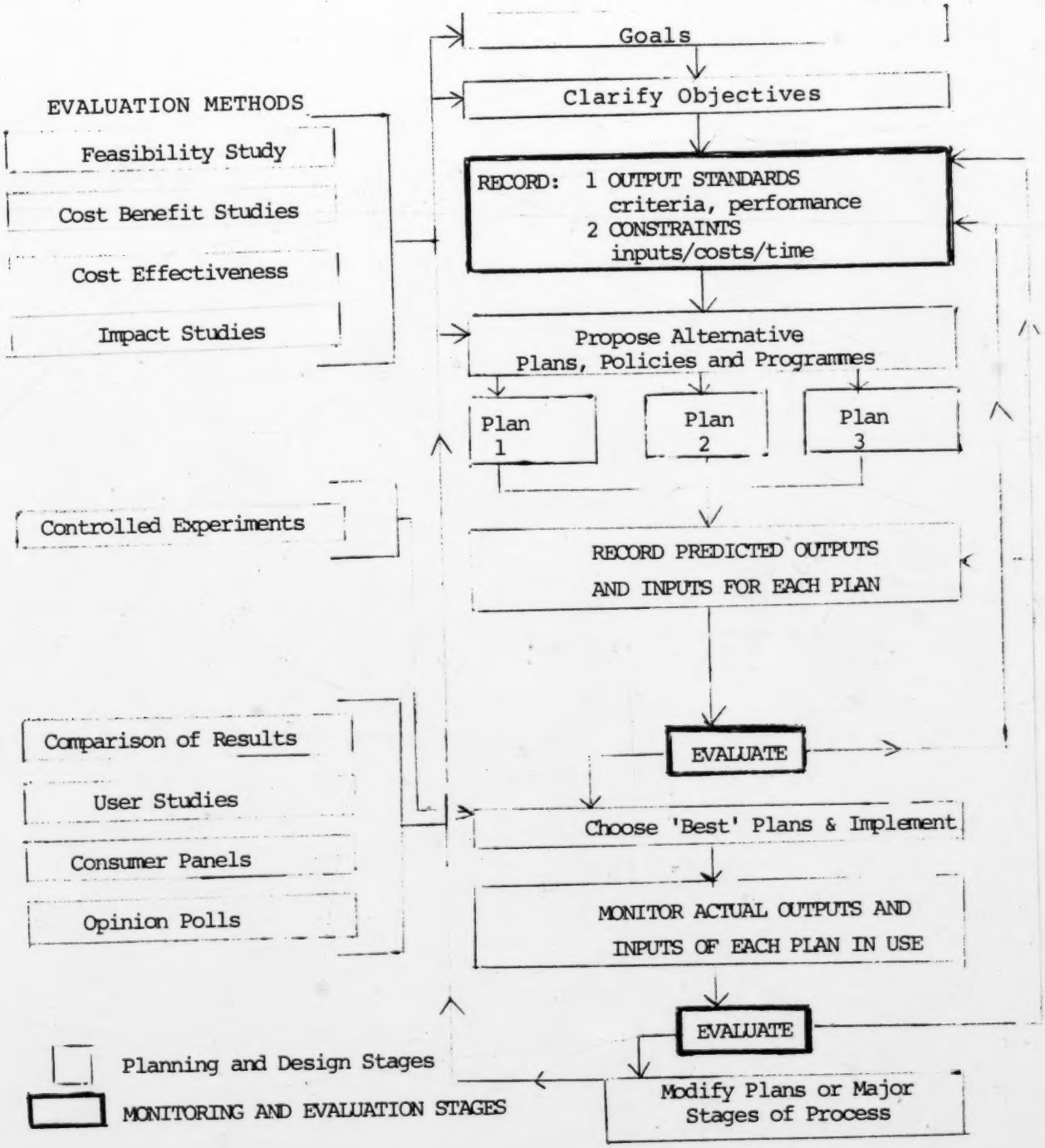

Figure 6 The practical example of the feedback approach to planning for delivery of community programs (From Milton Keynes, 1970).

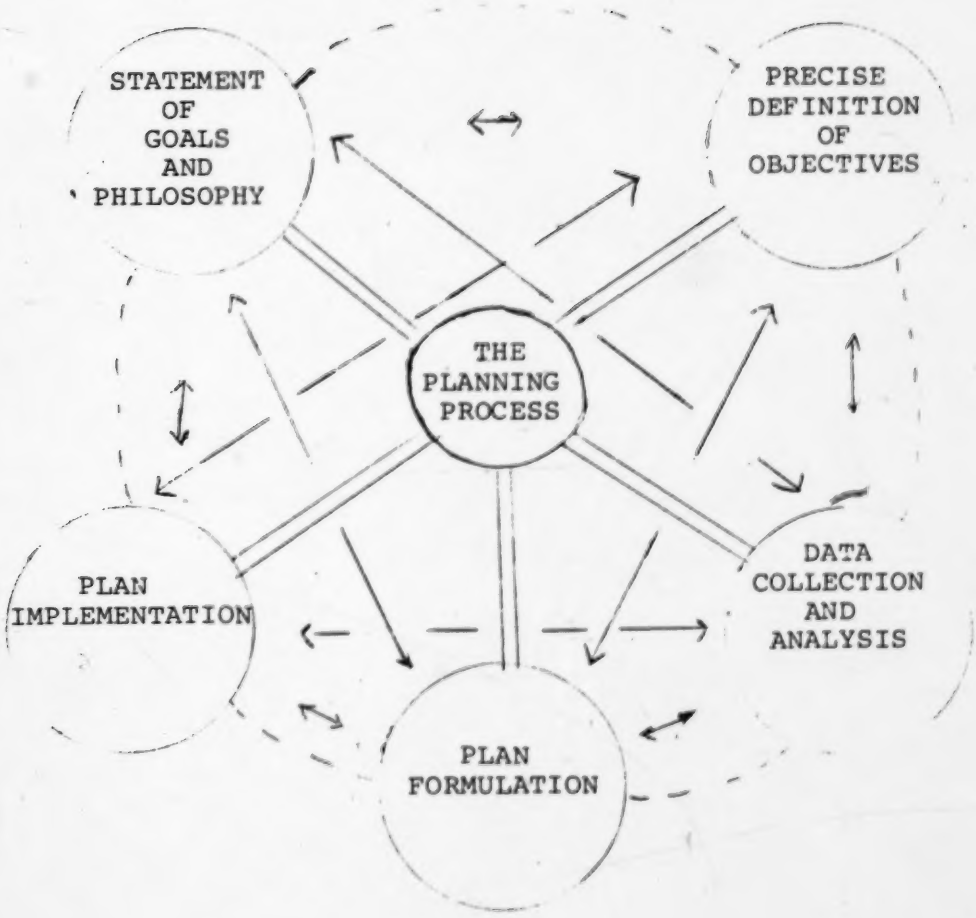

Figure 7 Planning as an inter-active process for delivery of community programs (From Burton, 1974).

influenced by the information made available and also the data being collected and the way in which it is analyzed will, in turn, be vulnerable to changing demands from the other components of the process. Such a process of interaction creates problems in many practical solutions. For example, data collection analysis and evaluation is usually a time consuming process pursued over a long time span to acquire real confidence in its judgements. Perversely, an organization pursuing an inter-active model is likely to be continually shifting its emphasis which consequently creates a great practical difficulty for evaluators, a dilemma we see reflected in the words of Wildavsky as cited by Smith (1974: 23):

> Evaluation requires a certain amount of stability; changing the program month by month makes it impossible to get a fix on it of sufficient duration to perform any study.

In short, we have seen that social action programs are most often planned according to a more complex process such as the "feedback" or "inter-active" approaches. These processes are more demanding and require more careful scrutiny by the evaluator in order to determine the nature of his decisions towards measuring program objectives.

The author would like to summarize at this point what has been found within the input evaluation level that is primarily characterized by providing the resource requirements for the setting of overall program objectives. As has been seen, the nature of social action programs can make the setting

of objectives difficult, but this problem can be alleviated greatly when objectives are defined in accordance with the theoretical premises of the program and tied in with financial considerations. Furthermore, the conceptualization and measurement of objectives is performed with more ease when done in accordance with the pre-formative evaluation activities defined as needs assessment and program planning evaluation, the former of which provides an important informational base or input into the conceptualization of objectives and the latter of which helps to identify the subsequent evaluation activities to assess objectives in accordance with the way in which a program is planned. When these activities have been performed, the researcher proceeds to the next evaluation level.

PROCESS EVALUATION LEVEL

The social action program and its overall objectives having been set, the next steps are to document and measure what goes on within the various program stages. The focus here is on the process evaluation level. The evaluator must determine whether or not the services were successfully implemented and whether they succeeded in achieving the stated objectives through an examination of <u>progress</u> (formative activities). A number of considerations are critical at this stage; first, there is the need to specify measures, both quantitative and qualitative; second, how to study them within a research design (e.g. experimental); and finally, how to

synchronize methods and procedures within an overall paradigm (e.g. goal based or systems model). It is these considerations which are examined within this section.

Specification of Measures

Although, as Carter and Wharf point out, little has been written specifically on measuring techniques for evaluation of social action programs, there exists within the available literature some sources which offer significant guidelines.

Carol Weiss (1972: 45-50) offers one of the best reviews of the specification of measures related to social action programs. Weiss contends that the conceptualization and assessment of desired outcomes is done through the specification of output variables which measure the effects upon the agencies and larger systems and are fairly easy to observe and quantify. However, more important is the need to assess outcomes in terms of the effects upon program recipients such as changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and personality. Such behavioral changes are difficult to assess as they do not deal with physical attributes which are easy to see, touch, quantify or observe. The result has been to ignore or not develop adequate qualitative measures which according to Henderson (1974: 40) are.. . .

> qualitative social indicators which are subjective measures of how individuals or groups within the population view the functioning of and changes within the various subsystems and contain those definitions or partial definitions of social indicators that bear on the subjective or qualitative perception of the situation.

The development of sound qualitative measures requires more attention because as Zimberg (1976: 226) contends we must account for the measurement of psychological variables as their consideration is important in assessing the success or failure of a program in affecting changes upon program recipients.

Mark Schneider (1976: 287) offers a useful differentiation between objective social indicators which are aimed at qualitative changes in groups and subjective indicators designed to measure the quality of life in the individual. He contends that a confusion between the two terms has led to a blurring of the physical and psychological aspects of life's qualities and that efforts towards developing more adequate social indicators applicable for measuring qualitative, intangible behavioural changes such as changes in attitudes, aspirations, expectations, and happiness levels are needed. In short, when dealing with qualitative changes and subsequent measures, there is greater need to apply judgement and less scientific precision from the evaluator. In doing this, the evaluator is not being less objective (Zimberg, 1976) but rather is capitalizing on the role judgement can play in the evaluation process (Berk, Rossi, 1976: 338). Furthermore, such subjective indicators do assist in the relative ranking of quantitative objective indicators and clarify the significance of these (Henderson, 1974: 40).

Weiss (1972: 43) points out that in addition to conceptualizing the desired outcomes is to develop variables

whose measurement help to clarify the meaning of the program in two ways; first; they fill in the details of what the general program has outlined; by illustrating the range of elements that are inherent in the program; and second, they contribute to the analysis of which features of the program work and which do not . An analysis of program variables begins to explain why the program has the effects it does. However, the conceptualization of the nature of a social action program can be a difficult undertaking due to their complex nature. In order to overcome this obstacle Weiss contends that:

> program variables should be given more precision in terms of differentiating between input, intervening variables in order to explain why the program has produced such effects then we can begin to see which program factors are correlated with success and thus, have the basis for recommendations for future modifications.

Input measures are determined by variations in purposes, methods, principles, staffing, recipients, service duration, location, program size or management auspices. Weiss also establishes criteria for the measurement of participant input measures which include such variables as age, sex, socio-economic status, race, length of residency, reasons for participation and attitudes and aspirations about programs. Also, Weiss stresses the need to specify conditions between the program inputs and outcomes. He calls these intermediate factors intervening variables, (e.g. frequency of staff turnover), which occur between program inputs and outputs and can therefore influence the program's direction.

In short, through the development of output variables, to measure the extent to which overall program goals have been achieved, the evaluator is concerned too, with the description and measure of other relevant aspects of the program such as the inputs and also, those factors, known as intervening variables that mediate between inputs and outputs.

Research Designs

Once the measures have been specified and the data have been collected then the next step is to decide on how to study the program effects. In formulating the research design the evaluator can use the traditional controlled experiment, the less formalized quasi-experimental designs, or move to dynamic, descriptive designs whose appropriateness for handling the nature of social action programs will be outlined in this section.

Logsden (1975: 32) offers a useful description of the experimental design which, briefly, randomly selects a large number of candidates from a community and assigns them to a program experiment group or a control group. The program is viewed as an experimental treatment and statistical tests are utilized to establish whether the program group achieved more goal-oriented progress than the control group (Figure 8).

Rossi (1979) maintains that the experimental design is still best for evaluating social action programs. He contends that all elements in both action programs and

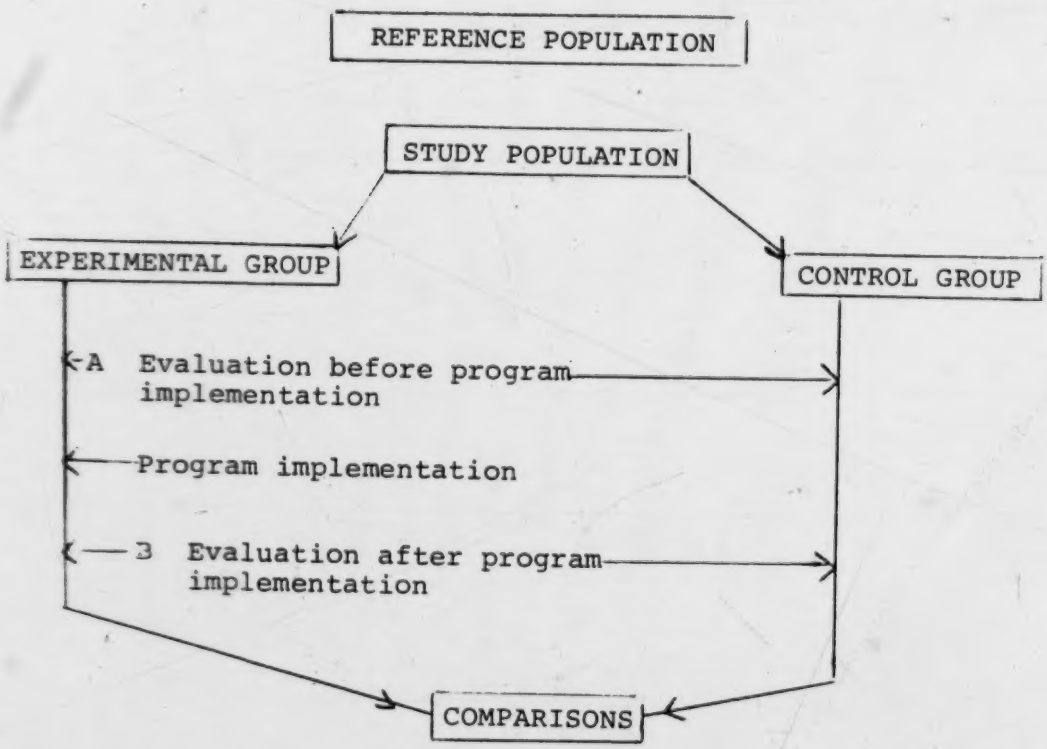

Figure 8 Experimental evaluation design. (From Rochon, 1972).

experimental design are present. That is, both are under someone's control, and therefore it is possible to construct experimental and control groups. Moreover, the program is usually only for a portion of the population which can therefore be duplicated by control groups.

Donald T. Campbell (1974) advocates the use of "quasi-experiments" for research in real world situations which partially approximate experiments but in which some significant feature of the experiment is not feasible. Campbell applies the logic of experimental design to these situations and offers several quasi-experimental designs which are appropriate under different circumstances. Although the option of quasi-experimental design appears to be more appropriate than experimental design for social action programs, a consensus from the literature indicates that both designs are inappropriate for social action programs due to the following reasons outlined by Logsden (1975: 33):

1. Programmers may find it very difficult to define and operationalize goals.

2. Randomization and control groups are precluded since the researcher maintains minimal influence over selection into the program.

3. Developing and pre-testing goal indicators for validity and reliability may not be feasible, if standardized or pre-tested indicators aren't available.

4. The study population may be inaccessible to testing, biased against questionnaires, and may experience a high dropout rate from the program and study, especially if the population is of a low income nature.

5. Very few controls, if any, may be possible if the evaluation is sought after the program has been completed.

The move from experimental design to descriptive research designs appears to be the most advantageous for social action researchers; first, by incorporating more than one stage of the causal process into the analysis, the researcher can more fully examine the total social programming process as it occurs; second, they lend themselves more readily to changes in the design while an evaluation of it is being carried out; third, descriptive designs capture the richness of program effects, the feelings of staff and participants and thus, make the evaluation a co-operative effort and learning experience between those intimately involved in the evaluation process as well as the potential consumers of the program.

An examination will now be undertaken of the most widely used descriptive research designs and their techniques for conducting evaluation research in social action programs: namely, the case study approach; the survey of subjective opinions and skills; and selected variations upon the group process approach, such as the transactional and adversary techniques.

The case study approach involves a careful examination of all letters, memorandums and other written material which have established procedural policies and which designate policies and restrictions in resource allocation. Key people within various levels of agencies may be interviewed. It

necessitates expertise in the designing of valid and objective analytic infrastructures and in the carrying out of rigorous analysis. One of its limitations is that many personnel have neither the indication, time, nor expertise for such evaluation efforts (Poplin, 1972).

One source of collecting data under the case study approach is through participant observation (Poplin, 1972). Participant observation is an effective way to study social movements, communities and informal groups. Unlike the social survey, it does not lend itself to large amounts of statistical data nor is it highly structured. Through his participation within the community he wishes to study, the researcher acquires data and gains insight into the community process and structure. As a method, participant observation uses techniques of direct observation, direct participation, a great deal of interviewing and a wide variety of documents and unpublished records including statistical material. The primary advantage of participant observation as a basic methodological approach is that it yields certain types of data which can only be discovered by the researcher who enters into a continuous and close interaction with his informants and also, the researcher is not restricted to a particular set of questions. Limitations to the participant observation method include, most notably, that the researcher may unavoidably influence the group he is observing.

A survey of subjective opinions and skills is a technique which provides the programmer with an evaluation which can be quickly and easily achieved. It provides a readable assessment tool of the program's inputs and assets. The evaluation questions in the survey are related directly to the experiences of the staff and participants. Objective tests of the acquired skills can be given before, after or during the program in order to confirm the degree to which skills were developed and utilized and such tests must include the reactions of participants and staff to the program inputs. In this way, the survey approach brings the evaluation closer to the program participants. Moreover, as Logsden (1975: 35) points out, in the majority of cases, participants' opinions and answers to questions are reliable. This is supported by the fact that when these opinions are accompanied by frequency counts indicating the percentage of respondents benefitting from the program something closely approximating the testimonies and rating occurs.

A variety of the group process approaches can be utilized in community action program evaluations at relatively low cost. Such processes are easily manageable and flexible within shorttime spans. Group approaches are comprised of a series of group discussions between board members, staff and participants in order to review program goals, processes and benefits based on agency records, statistical data and people's perceptions of problems and solutions. By bringing together

the evaluator and participants, the evaluation process is not as vulnerable to manipulation by either side and all actors gain primary experience in research and assessment through their direct involvement in the evaluation process. In this way, the evaluations become a learning experience for all engaged and training in the integration and application of an evaluation mechanism is achieved for future programming.

Logsden (1975: 35) indicates several limitations of group process approaches: first, they necessitate that all actors come together as a co-operative unit which is often difficult to achieve or strategically unwise; second, if the program continues, then there is a possibility that opinions and agency records can become augmented with case study and survey data, and thus, data can become less accurate or manipulated by primary actors conducting the process; and third, the reliance on people's opinions leaves room for a questioning of their validity.

One type of group process approach called "transactional" was first advocated by Robert Rippey (1972). It involves protagonists, and designers of the innovation plus a representative group of people likely to be negatively affected by consequences of change. This design is based on a resistance to change and its threat to roles and requires the evaluator to have a great deal of interpersonal skills if he is to employ the strategy wisely. The model's advantages lie in the fact that it involves both protagonists and antagonists of the change and the constant evaluation of both the unanticipated and

anticipated consequences. The advantages of the Rippey approach according to Brack (1975: 44) are:

1. Formative evaluation design is improved through the involvement of a wider range of opinions and values in the evaluation design.

2. Increased organizational efficiency and greater program benefits result because of attentiveness to potential role threats.

3. The concern of the evaluator for human values as well as program outcomes places him in a better relationship with personnel involved in the change, bringing greater honesty of interchange and thus more valid data.

4. Involvement of a wider range of interested personnel in evaluation leaves a residue of organizational and evaluative skills that are of potential use for the organization, persisting beyond either the termination or the solidification of the original change.

Harriet Talmage (1975: 39) has applied the transactional approach towards evaluating local school and community programs, and found it to be more effective than evaluation models used in the past as it "weds group processes with program development and evaluation activities". Talmage concludes that the evaluation consultant must make the skills of the transactional approach available to the people involved in these programs and thereby give them a more active role in the evaluation design.

Another type of group process approach is the adversary evaluation. In the adversary approach, advocated by Kevine (1973) and Kourlisky (1973), much has been based on the work of Rippey's transactional model. Levine's adversary approach

is based on a legal orientation. That is, an adversary acts as a "cross examiner" of the evidence sources provided by the primary investigator. The sources of evidence are compiled and classified by a designated group.

The Kourilsky model uses both an affirmative and a negative evaluator and each is responsible for preparing a case for and against a proposal (Figure 9). The information from both sides is thus provided to the decision-maker who interacts with the two evaluators before the final decision is drawn up. Kourilsky (1973: 5) points out that "adversary evaluation receives the benefits of both the dialective and the legal process and, as a result, a better and more rational decision may result". In this way, the decision-maker takes in a great deal of information, primarily because both sides are represented. In addition, during the confrontation, both advocates try to cover most of the factors supporting their decisions. The quality of evidence tends to be better as the adversary relationship encourages both sides to provide the best evidence that supports his/her viewpoint.

In summary, dynamic descriptive designs rather than the experimental design appear to be the most feasible and advantageous for evaluating social action programs. They lend themselves more readily to changes in the design of the program while it is being conducted. As has been noted, program administrators, quite wisely, look for feedback and alter programs in midstream on the basis of such feedback. A strict

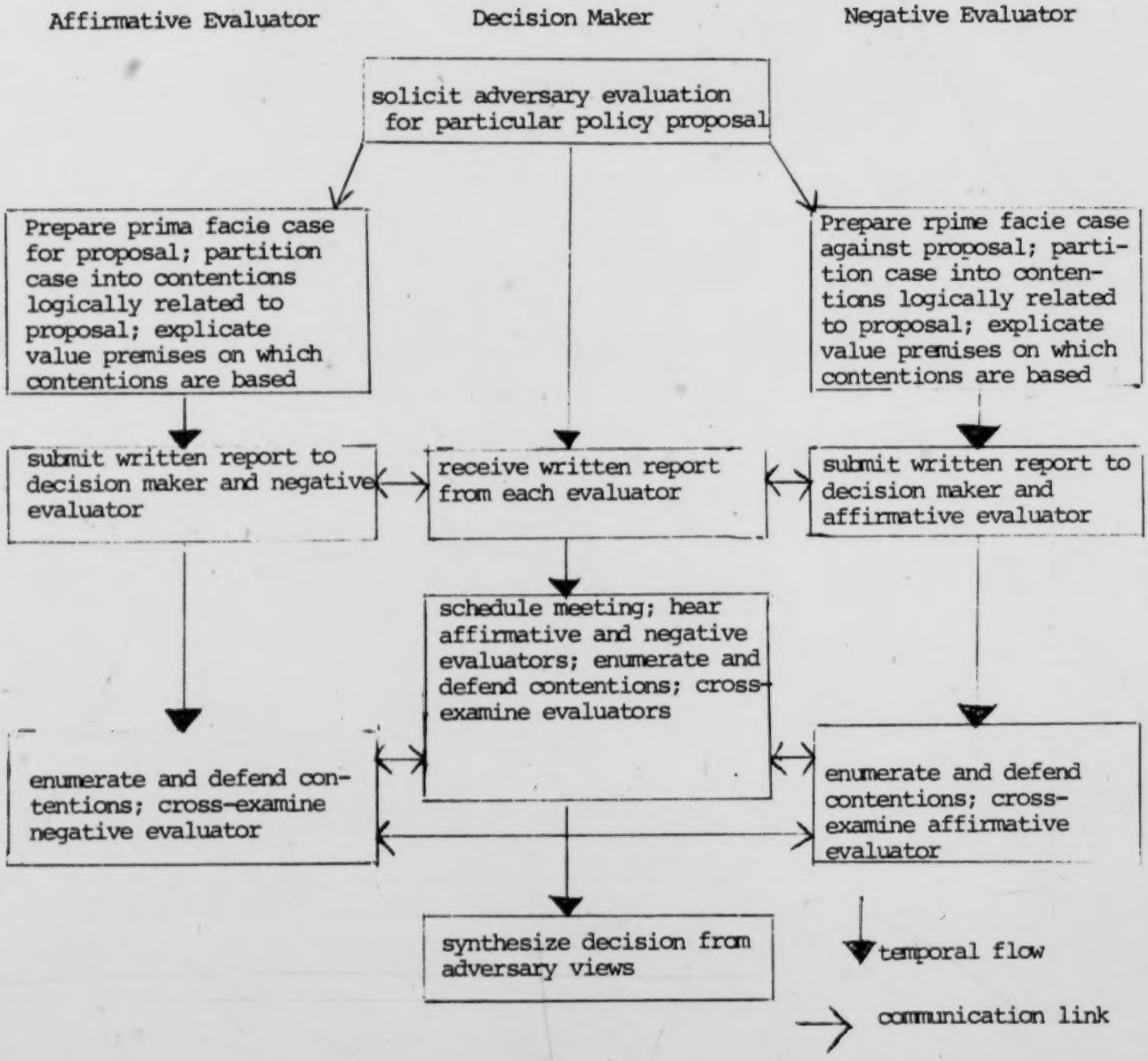
Affirmative Evaluator
Decision Maker
Negative Evaluator
solicit adversary evaluation for particular policy proposal
Prepare prima facie case for proposal; partition case into contentions logically related to proposal; explicate value premises on which contentions are based
Prepare rpime facie case against proposal; partition case into contentions logically related to proposal; explicate value premises on which contentions are based
submit written report to decision maker and negative evaluator
receive written report from each evaluator
submit written report to decision maker and affirmative evaluator
schedule meeting; hear affirmative and negative evaluators; enumerate and defend contentions; cross-examine evaluators
enumerate and defend contentions; cross-examine negative evaluator
enumerate and defend contentions; cross-examine affirmative evaluator
synthesize decision from adversary views
temporal flow
communication link

Figure 9 Adversary evaluation flow chart (From Kourilsky, 1973)

experimental design may be jeopardized by such changes, whereas the more descriptive designs benefit from such changes and allow the researcher to more fully understand the social programming process as it actually happens (Voth, 1975). It should also be pointed out that the choice of research design has direct implications for the selection of the overriding model which illustrates in a simplified form how a program's methods and procedures should operate during the process evaluation level. Such a paradigm is useful for determining the degree to which the underlying concepts are understood and should be adopted in accordance with specifics of the program to which it is to be applied.

Study Models

It has been stated that the choice of research design has direct implications on the selection of the overriding model which illustrates in a simplified form how a program's methods and procedures should operate during the process evaluation level. Such a paradigm is useful to the degree to which the underlying concepts are understood and should be adopted in accordance to specifics of the program to which it is to be applied.

There are two major trends in the literature; first, an evaluation based on a deductive goal based model that is used in accordance with the experimental design; second, an indicative, descriptive approach based on a systems model

As both the goal-model approach and the systems model appear so frequently in the literature and both techniques have been widely operationalized in evaluation research, it becomes imperative to examine the strengths and weaknesses of each in order to determine their applicability for evaluating social action programs.

The goal model approach (Figure 10) has been extensively examined in the literature (Freeman and Sherwood (1977), Denton, (1975), Schulberg and Baker (1977), Thompson (1975), Seutsher (1976) and Rutman (1976). It has been widely accepted and assumes the basic concept expressed by Thompson (1975: 14)...

> evaluation is the measurement of movement towards a goal.

Schulberg and Baker (1977: 54-63) point out that the goal-model approach assumes that goals can be readily identified and subdivided into various levels or subgoals to which appropriate methodologies and criteria can be applied so as to measure effectiveness in terms of efforts (inputs and outputs) and performance (progress towards goal attainment). It is a very structured evaluation process beginning at the lowest goal levels and moving upwards, concerning itself with the degree of success in reaching a specific objective which can be evaluated and modified in isolation from other goals established by the organization. Thus, the goal-model approach does not highlight the interrelation between goals and the ways in which modification of one goal can become constrained by others in the program's

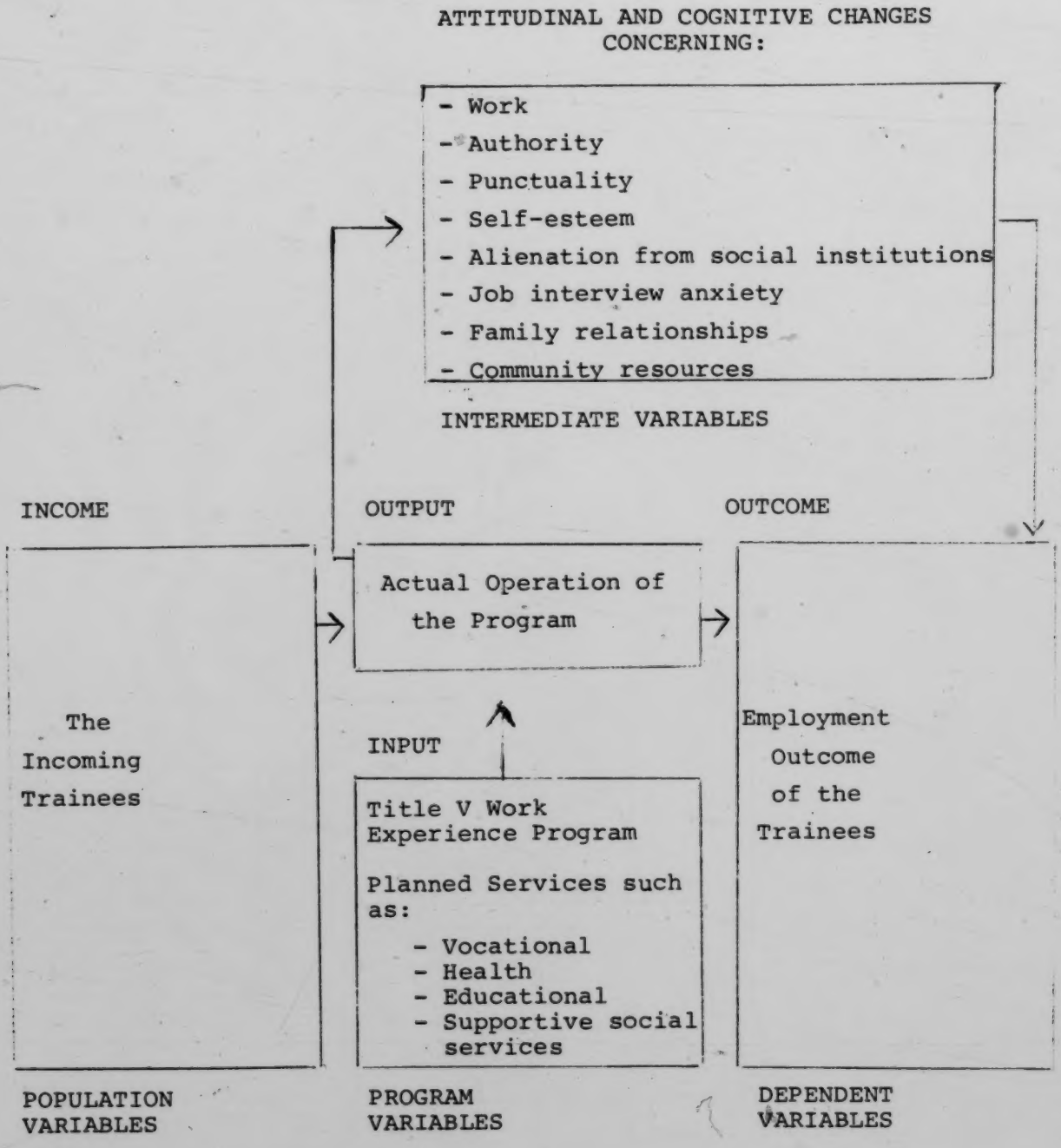

Figure 10 An example of the goal-model approach (From Carter and Wharf, 1973).

process characteristics. Schulberg and Baker point out that a further limitation of the goal attainment model is that it is relatively detached from any concern with the techniques of implementing findings. This weakness is due to its close approximation with the experimental model; that is, in trying to obtain objectivity, the researcher relies on the administrator for a statement of goals without considering the fact that many organizational goals were never intended to be formalized. In this instance the program administrator will be scarcely disturbed when the researcher finds that the organizational goals are not being met and according to Schulberg and Baker (1977: 57). . .

> never having meant to attain the goals studied by the researcher, the administrator sees no need to alter his programs to accommodate the findings of the research. The program evaluation has little impact upon the organization since the researcher had little understanding of the administrator's purpose in participating in the study.

Deutscher (1976: 250) suggests that evaluator and administrator should negotiate over defining program goals in order to overcome confusion. Deutscher differentiates between original, formal goals and actual or real goals, the latter of which become a "bastardized" version of the former during the planning-implementing-evaluation process. Through negotiations, the researcher and administrator can discuss and define which goals they wish to examine and measure. Administrators can reach an agreement on what the "actual or real goals" are that need to be assessed. In this

way evaluating spurious goals and utilizing invalid measures is prevented. Denton (1977) is also concerned with the measurement and acceptability of goals which are often contradictory concepts; imprecise or too difficult for a program to meet; program goals are made precise then little concensus exists on their acceptability.

Further limitations of this model, as Carter and Wharf (1973: 45) point out is that the goal-model approach does not describe accurately all program variables and it is difficult to make the important program variables (input, intermediate, and output) operational. First, input measurements require a close scrutiny of program proposals and organizational charts, neither of which is accommodated for in this approach; second, intermediate variables, which include the difficult to measure attitudinal and cognitive changes that are of major concern in social action programs, are not highlighted; finally, output measures require a close observation of work and training sessions which is also not possible under this approach.

Several modifications of the goal-model approach have been proposed in an effort to improve its usefulness for evaluation, some of which will now be examined.

James (1961) described a less rigid, circular version of the evaluation process which began with goal setting, went on to measuring the goal, collecting data and appraising it in relation to goal effects and finally, the initial goal is modified on the basis of the data collected. A weakness of

James modified goal approach according to Shulberg and Baker (1977: 59) is that there is no sound way that the circle of the evaluation process can be closed and that usually what had previously been a reciprocal relationship of co-operation between evaluator and administrator breaks down at the point of goal modification.

Another goal approach modification includes Michael Scriven's (1972) "Goal Free Evaluation" which is concerned with the side effects or "unanticipated" events which should be separated from goals. He is not advocating a non-goal approach but rather is trying to improve the approach by advocating that a sound evaluation should be able to determine both intended goals and unintended effects of a program. "Goal Free Evaluation" is supported by Stufflebeam and Kneller (1972) but as Brack (1975) points out certain limitations exist in Scriven's approach which inhibit an evaluator from becoming overly optimistic about its utility. That is, goal free evaluation could be utilized as an excuse for not being able to state goals; it may not provide a focus for data collection; and there could be a lack of existing trained evaluators who are able to impose their own goals upon a program in order to carry out a thorough evaluation (Brack, 1975).

Goal attainment scaling, first formulated by Sherman and Kiresuk (1968), rests in the general tradition of the goal-model approach, but in addition to the general form this approach just described it makes use of quantitative techniques

and analysis. As Kiresuk and Lund describe it (1978: 342) "goal attainment scaling improves the situation by placing the target goal in the center of a range of possible outcomes from "most unfavourable" and "less than expected" on the one end, the "expected outcome" in the middle, and the "more than expected" and "best anticipated" on the other end. This is incorporated in the left column of a "goal attainment follow-up guide". Goal attainment scaling (Coursey 1977: 49) has become a widely used quantitative technique which measures the extent to which a client has achieved her/his own treatment goals. Nancy Wilson (1977) has summarized how computers can be usefully utilized during the retrieval system of data collection for goal attainment scaling. Finally, Miller (1975) and Webber (1975) have integrated goal attainment techniques into a wider management information system. Also Zinober (1974) and Miller (1975) have developed goal-orientated evaluations for measuring effects upon children engaged in educational programs.

The major alternative to the goal model is the systems approach (Figure 11). The system-model approach recognizes more explicitly than the goal model approach that there exists a complex network of program goals (Thompson, 1975). According to Coursey (1977: 51) the systems model must. . .

> achieve its goals and subgoals; effectively coordinate organizational subunits; acquire and maintain necessary resources; and adapt the organization to the environment and to its own internal demands.

In this way the organization is seen as a multifunctional unit.

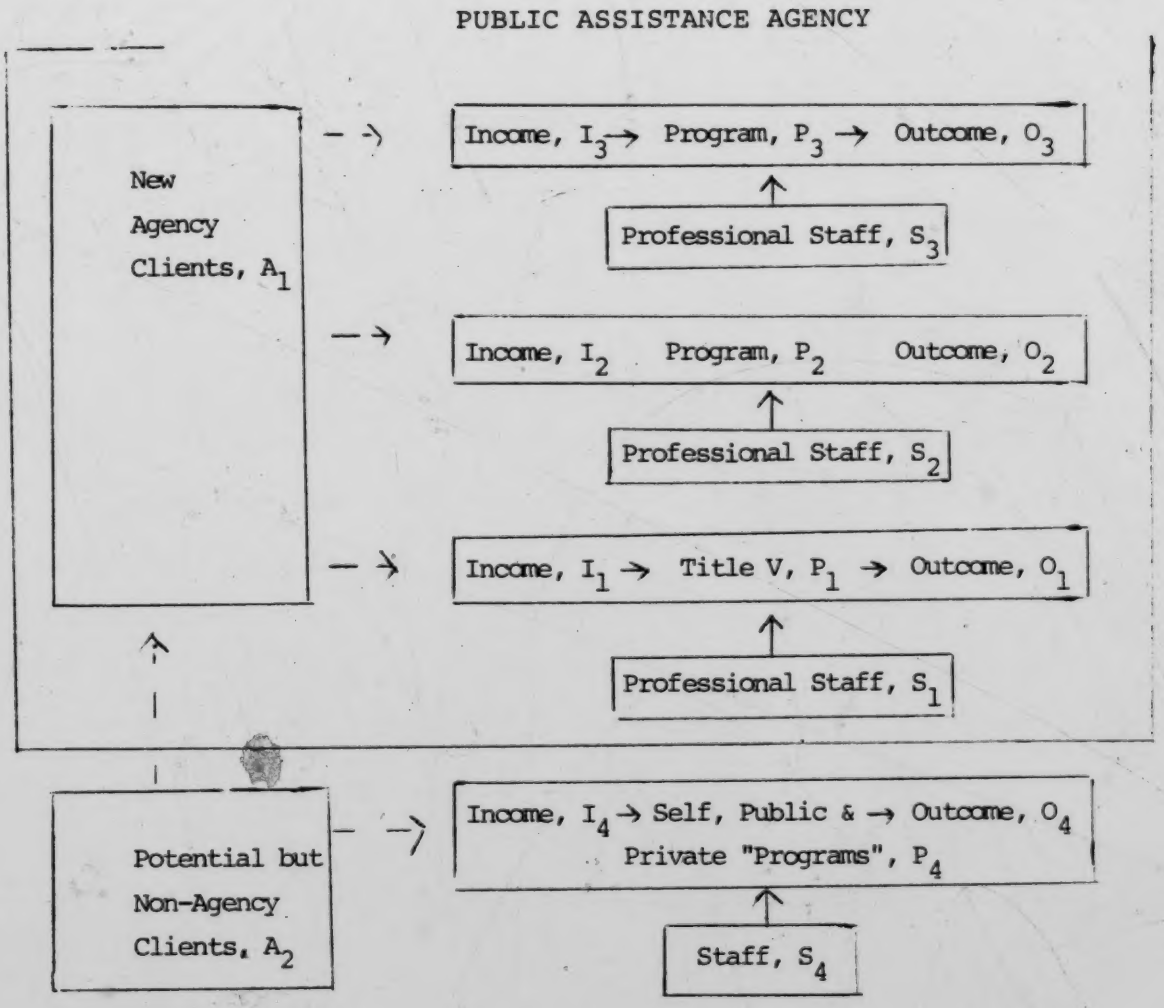
PUBLIC ASSISTANCE AGENCY
New Agency Clients, A_1
Income, I_3 → Program, P_3 → Outcome, O_3
Professional Staff, S_3
Income, I_2 Program, P_2 Outcome, O_2
Professional Staff, S_2
Income, I_1 → Title V, P_1 → Outcome, O_1
Professional Staff, S_1
Potential but Non-Agency Clients, A_2
Income, I_4 → Self, Public & Private "Programs", P_4 → Outcome, O_4
Staff, S_4

Figure 11 An example of the systems-model approach (From Carter and Wharf, 1973).

The system-model is characterized by being an open system which interacts with its environment. It constantly collects information about the environment (e.g. administrative aspects) and behavioral reactions to events happening within and between component parts and uses this information as the means for channelling adaptations or directions toward the system's goals.

The concept most commonly borrowed by evaluators from the system approach is the input-throughput-output-feedback notion. Borrowing from Ryan's summary (1973: 50-57) inputs are the components which receive, store, or take, in energy in the form of material or information such as money, time, people, equipment, effort or information: throughput is the convertor processor or means of assimilating or turning the energy received into; output, the result, product or outcomes; feedback is the regulating feature which serves as a monitor and evaluator to ensure that planned goals are reached. In this way, as Ryan (1973: 53-54) concludes:

> In an open system, the whole is considered in terms of flow. The flow process involves input as the energizer (or starting force), throughput as the process activity, and output as the result of the action. Feedback is that part of the flow which serves as a control by continually monitoring and evaluating all component actions and interactions. The flow process is cyclic in operation; it strives for balance and seeks to sustain the life of the system.

This input-throughout-output-feedback scheme has been widely used for systems engineering in areas of information theory and cybernetics. Also, this form of systems design has been widely utilized in the business, education and health fields.

It appears that although the system-model approach is more demanding than the goal approach, it permits a better analysis of social action programs whose aims are not confined to limited objectives but include new ways of utilizing available resources. In this way, by incorporating more than one stage of the causal process into the analysis, a researcher may more fully explore and conceptualize the total change processes initiatied by social action programs. Furthermore, through a systems approach, an evaluator can aim at the present stage of program development which necessitates a different set of evaluation questions to be asked at different program stages based on questions of how effectively program objectives have been met in terms of effort, effectiveness and efficiency. This type of analysis has been termed differential evaluation (Tripodi, 1971: 41).

In summary, the process evaluation level appears to be the most demanding and time consuming evaluation level. It covers a wide range of complex elements. First, there is the specification of quantitative and qualitative measures, the latter of which is more difficult than the former as it deals with assessing intangible, behavioral changes and as they appear to be the target of many social action programs, the researcher must make a great deal of effort towards developing such sound measures. Second, once the measures have been specified and the data collected, the researcher chooses the appropriate design in order to study the program's progress. Here, it

appears that the descriptive research design in the majority of cases, is most conducive towards a holistic assessment of the effects of social action programs. Third, the methods and procedures of descriptive research design are best synchronized in an overriding study model or paradigm known as the system-model approach.

Process evaluation appears to be the primary focus of most social action programs. Fitz-Gibbon and Alkin (1975: 11) have summarized why it is often impossible to reduce process objectives to outcomes:

1. The objectives of most action programs are focussed on assessing difficult areas such as changes in attitudes and values which need time to become effective and therefore defy "short-run" solutions, such as is obtained through outcome/end product evaluation.

2. The striving for intangible or distant outcomes cannot be measured immediately and no proxy measures of proven validity and reliability are available.

3. End product evaluation studies are inappropriate in the beginning stages when a program usually reflects unstable characteristics, and difficulty in specifying objectives. And, often when changes need to be made, they can be temporarily disruptive to an evaluation and force the evaluator to make changes to what he perceives to be the desired outcome.

4. An outcome/end product evaluation fails to account for partial or unanticipated results which are important variables that must be accounted for in assessing the success

or failure of a program.

In the last regard, Carter and Wharf (1975: 65) noted that the Westinghouse evaluation of Head Start programs in the United States failed to emphasize that important secondary consequences arose from the process which affected the health, nutrition and community objectives of the program and these partial results became responsible for making it . . .

> the single largest health services delivery system to needy children in the nation.

Hence, it appears that it is often impossible to reduce process objectives to an outcome/product study and the evaluator who insists on trying to get outcome when the program audience is determined on assessing process goals fails to see in the words of Alkin and Fitz-Gibbon (1975: 11) "that the proof of the pudding is always in the growth and never in the eating". In this context, it appears that the evaluator of social action programs must focus on examining the nature of a program revealed through the process evaluation level and if he is just concerned with examining the end product he may fail to ask the appropriate evaluative questions. Moreover, it appears that the process evaluation level deals with those elements which provide important decision-making areas between the input and product evaluation levels in order for a more comprehensive evaluation to be undertaken.

PRODUCT EVALUATION LEVEL

Product evaluations refer to how well the objectives of a program have been met and this level is assessed through two activities called documentation and outcome (summative evaluations). As the preceeding section indicated, outcome studies focused on examining the end product are not always feasible with regard to social action programs. Nevertheless, a familiarization with the various types and techniques of outcome studies are useful to the practitioner trying to acquire an amount of expertise in evaluation.

The following section will focus on methodologies of the product evaluation level which refer to evaluating how well the objectives of a program have been met. A brief description of an outcome model will be outlined and followed by an examination of two major techniques towards documenting effects under such an approach; the planning and management methodologies (e.g. decision-theoretic approach and cost analytic models).

Outcome Models

According to Carter and Wharf (1973: 41-43) outcome models determine the degree to which client improvement can be attributed to program intervention and their major focus is upon changes in global adjustment in the individual and is an outgrowth of the classic experimental research design. Some measures include self-ratings, peer ratings, mood scales, personality inventories and assessment interviews.

Hargreaves and Attkisson (1978) have documented how outcome evaluation is an advanced stage of program evaluation which makes an important contribution to program management.

Planning and Management Methodologies-Decision Theoretic Approach

Evaluation procedures founded in management perspectives and models have usually focused on the planning, implementing, and decision-making aspects of programming. A model of program decision-making which has received a great deal of attention is the decision-theoretic approach (Guttentag 1973). This approach according to Guttentag (1973: 140) offers a conceptual framework which "links inferences about states of the world, the values of decision-makers and decisions". Thus, the decision-theoretic approach focuses on frequent program decisions and the values or "utilities" of the decision-makers and can be used by agencies both in planning and evaluation which are "continuous and are integrated" (Guttentag 1977: 78). Although the experimental design can be utilized on occasion in this approach it emphasizes using alternative designs (e.g. descriptive) in light of the fact that the classical experimental model has not always been conducive to meeting the needs of decision-makers.

Cost Analytic Models

As Coursey (1977: 53) pointed out there has been a great deal of resistance to cost-based evaluations by

administrators as they do not like to justify human and social services in cost terms. However, pressure from funders and governments has increasingly caused evaluation to be undertaken of the fiscal dimensions of programs. This model can assume a number of approaches including cost accounting, cost-benefit analysis, cost-effectiveness analysis, cost utility analysis and operations research. Each of these approaches has been well documented by Robert Coursey (1977: 53-54), who sees many limitations. Most important however, is the fact that there is an exclusive focus on cost which can distort process and value considerations. For this reason, cost analytic models do not lend themselves readily to improving economic efficiency.

CONTEXT EVALUATION LEVEL

In order to complete the research framework, issues relating to the context must be considered as the evaluation hypotheses, and techniques within an evaluation study are dependent upon contextual elements revolving around and within the program (Longest, 1975). Furthermore, the nature of contextual dimensions helps to provide a more objective assessment for the input, process and outcome levels which we have previously examined. This section will examine, first, the organizational context within which the program is planned, implemented and evaluated and second, how the socio-political environments affect the nature of the evaluation process.

Organizational Context

Wildavsky (1972) states that the "ideal" organization would be self evaluating. Unfortunately, such an ideal rarely exists and the need for evaluation researchers continues. E. Hamilton-Smith's (1974) discussion of the organizational aspects of evaluation contains a valuable insight into the researcher-practitioner constraints which often arise during the evaluation process. E. Hamilton-Smith (1974: 10) states . . .

> The result of having evaluative studies that are carried on during the life cycle of a program is that evaluators and program staff must live . . . (uneasily, as we shall see) side by side.

From a review of the literature it appears that researcher-practitioner conflicts can arise from:

1. Differences in personality.

2. Differences in career patterns (the researcher is often awarded a higher status based on his academic background which creates resentment and feelings of rivalry in the practitioner).

3. Interference with the administration routine, as the collection of data, interviews and questioning are often very time consuming processes.

4. Incongruent ideas, goals, values and frames of reference, whereby the researcher's use of new evaluation techniques and dedication towards attaining objectivity reflects a questioning of the practitioner's techniques.

5. The very nature of an evaluation reveals facts, thus reducing the privacy and security of some administrator's

jobs.

There has been considerable debate surrounding the decision to use an internal or external evaluator in order to prevent many of the researcher-practitioner conflicts. The advantages of utilizing an evaluator from within the organization are; that there is usually an easier acceptance of results from others within the organization than from outsiders, thereby ensuring that changes are more likely to be implemented; and that an inside evaluator is more knowledgeable about every aspect of the program and what influences its character and direction. However, inevitably, an internal evaluator falls prey to blending his biases into the evaluation process. A specialist from outside can bring knowledge and resources unknown to the agency in order to solve problems of evaluation, he is likely to be more objective than program personnel, and he can utilize the knowledge he has learned from having studied other programs. However, program personnel opposed to change can easily blame an outsider for misinterpreting facts. Also, an outsider can easily overlook some important factors or hold biases upon which he makes evaluation studies. However, whether an internal or external evaluator is used many of the problems inherent within the organizational environment can be alleviated if the following preconditions, as summarized by E. Hamilton Smith (1974: 12-14), are met:

1. Those responsible for the policy and administration of programs must be fully convinced of the need for evaluation; must agree on the purpose of evaluation; must agree upon the

uses and possible consequences of the evaluation; and must be fully involved in making the decision that evaluation will be a part of their program.

2. Organizational arrangements must be made to ensure objectivity together with appropriate resources and knowledge. This will normally mean the involvement of external persons in the evaluation process.

3. Where external personnel are involved in the evaluation process, all steps of evaluation including design, data collection and data analysis, should be shared between external and internal personnel so that any artificial distinction between evaluator and evaluated is diminished.

4. In evaluating any service program, the recipients of the service should be involved in the evaluative process as far as possible.

5. Those who are involved in an evaluation process should share with each other their basic assumptions and the values underlying their thinking so that the influence of these upon perceptions of data and upon action recommendations, arising out of data, will be known.

Socio-Political Context

The organizational structure with its inherent researcher-practitioner conflicts is not the only area affecting the conduct of evaluation research. The socio-political environment within which the program exists also creates problems.

That is, evaluation research does not occur in a static environment as social action programs take place in constantly shifting environments which often meet unanticipated events (Weiss, 1972). For example, changes in clientele or community change can lead to subtle changes in program activities and contents. In the event that consequences arise, the evaluator should be prepared to perceive, handle and interpret changes accurately and skillfully. This can be achieved through constant observation and by examining any existing records of evaluations conducted during previous program phases which may provide insight into any anticipated difficulties. In these ways the evaluator will be better prepared to make "on the spot" decisions concerning how to redefine his evaluation scheme.

The political context within which rational evaluations take place can create constraints on the evaluator in three major ways. First, assumptions made on what to evaluate are political in nature (e.g. within the agency). Second, evaluations as part of the decision-making process inevitably enter into the larger legislative and bureaucratic systems whereby their formation and implementation are subjected to political pressures (i.e. funding). And finally, the political context can affect the dissemination of evaluation results. That is once, having made it past the lower political decision-makers, evaluation reports often find themselves "gathering dust" on the shelves in provincial or federal research departments.

Brandl (1978: 7), in an effort to link the academic and political worlds, suggests that evaluators should become more forceful in the political arenas in order to make their results more known and more widely disseminated. In this way they will not be perceived by politicians as just another interest group lobbying for attention.

SUMMARY

The important factors which have emerged from this critical appraisal of evaluation literature from social development fields related to community development can be summarized in the following way.

1. Evaluation research activities of social action programs are complex and there appear to be four evaluation levels namely, input, process, product and context, whose relationship to the activities in the preformative, formative and summative evaluation stages cover the major areas of decision-making faced by the evaluator. Consequently, each of the levels should be integrated into a framework in order to undertake a comprehensive evaluation.

2. There appears to be some disagreement over the validity and reliability of evaluation studies. Yet, the majority agree that without evaluation, social action programs become subject to a variety of pressures from which they must demonstrate some way of communicating their value.

3. The setting of objectives is often a problematic task due to the complex nature of social action programs. Yet, this task can be somewhat alleviated when done in reference to the theoretical premises of the program. More importantly the evaluator can receive important guidelines in conceptualizing and measuring program objectives when he engages in needs assessment and program planning evaluation activities.

4. There appears to be an unresolved issue over sound qualitative measures which are difficult to develop and yet remain as important as quantitative measures in order to assess intangible, behavioural changes such as changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes and aspirations which are the target of many social action programs.

5. It appears that the move from experimental to descriptive research designs is most advantageous for the social action researcher. When these are used in conjunction with the system-model approach, the evaluator can assess more wholistically the processes of change induced by social action programs.

6. The primary emphasis appears to be on the process evaluation level as many action programs being assessed are not at the stage where an outcome/end product evaluation is appropriate. Moreover, an investigation of process helps to reveal important partial results which disclose the failure or success of a program.

7. As social action programs take place in turbulent settings, their direction can be influenced by contextual factors such as organizational influences; which often lead to researcher-practitioner constraints, or political factors which affect the proper dissemination of evaluation results.

In conclusion, having acquired a familiarity with the evaluation methodologies of applied social action research, their relationship to the major elements and issues constituting the four major evaluation levels (input, process, product, and context) and corollary evaluation activities (pre-formative, formative, summative) it follows that an appraisal of evaluation literature related to community development should be undertaken in order to determine their relationship and applicability to this field.

CHAPTER 3

A CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF EVALUATION LITERATURE RELATED TO COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The material in this chapter will be organized into two parts. The first part entitled "Evaluation as an Art" will examine the origins of evaluation in community development. From this historical backdrop will be depicted first, the nature and role of evaluation in the early history of community development which began in the late 1950's and extended into the mid-1960's and second, an examination of the trend towards an increased interest in developing more systematic evaluation approaches through applied research for programs in community development. In this way, the focal point of part one is on depicting descriptions of early community development programs, their related evaluation approaches and techniques and its gradual movement from becoming less of an "art" and more of a "science" through a growing interest in developing more systematic evaluation methodologies through applied action research.

The second part of the appraisal entitled "Evaluation as a Science" will focus on how the methodologies of social action research have been adopted and applied to evaluation studies in community development over the past decade. From this examination will emerge how a new generation of community

development practitioners has attempted to develop more systematic, objective evaluation methods through applied social action research for determining the legitimacy of community development programs, to generally upgrade the quality of their evaluation reports and more importantly to demonstrate accountability to support agencies.

Both the conceptual groundwork provided from the appraisal of "Evaluation As An Art" and the practical procedures provided by the review of "Evaluation As a Science" will provide the guidelines towards designing a simplified evaluation framework for use by practitioners in the field of community development.

PART ONE

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT EVALUATION AS AN "ART"

The need and importance of program evaluation in community development is not a new phenomenon. Historically, it was recognized as early as 1954 when the United Nations sponsored a conference entitled "Criteria and Technical Assistance for Economic Development". One of the most significant outgrowths from this conference was a manual produced by Samuel Hayes (1959) which offered a simple, straightforward guide to assess effects and changes through quantitative and qualitative measures when a traditionally self-sufficient community undergoes development through the acquisition of modern technology. Hayes would later revise his manual in

1966 but apart from adding more technical precision (e.g. statistical sampling and use of control groups) it remained essentially the same.

Hayes defined three possible types of changes brought about by community development projects; changes in an individual's information patterns, skills and attitudes; changes in institutions and social relationships; and changes in social overhead capital. A consideration of measuring both short and long-term effects relative to these three broad categories of change provided one of the first broad evaluation bases for assessing changes in development. Hayes offered two types of evaluation: first, an approach which assesses changes in physical criteria such as harvest results; and second, socio-psychological evaluation which focusses on changes in such things as attitudes. It is this second approach that Hayes advocated as being more important for community development projects. Hayes stressed that the more quantitative are the data to assess these criteria, the better they are which is reflective of a more systematic and rigorous approach to evaluation, and which provides a basis for future comparative studies to be performed on community development projects.

Hayes' manual provided the basis for other evaluations of community development projects in the early 1960's whose focus was primarily on the international rural and agrarian scene (e.g. Indonesia, Nigeria, Britain, India) and, as such studies by Beers (1960), Jain's(1961), Batten (1962) provided

some interesting insights into evaluation approaches applicable to community development, they will be examined.

Beers' (1960) commentary focused on how evaluation of community development projects in India should be performed. He contends that the attention given to evaluation over the past few years gives it a special status and makes it an area deserving more attention. He views evaluation as a means and is not an end in itself to assessing social action projects. In this way, Beer's viewed community development evaluations as not just an assessment of purposes but a critique of how stated objectives are sought.

Beers' identified four rules by which such an evaluation should be conducted. First, good qualitative criteria should reflect clear statements of important immediate, intermediate and ultimate goals. Secondly, the means of reaching these goals should be clearly described. Third, data to be utilized to achieve ends must be clearly established. And fourth, the evaluation should include staff, citizens and project participants. He made explicit the fact that such an evaluation process should occur in conjunction with the planning of the entire project and should occur again when plans of action can be modified. Moreover, Beers criticizes the prevalent use of ex-post-facto evaluation which often yields disappointing results and fail to highlight important data which occur during the process of change induced by community development intervention. Events can be evaluated but not just after the

termination of a project. In other words, Beers' emphasis is on the evaluation of the community development process and not just upon its outcomes in order to measure what he terms "relative efficacy of gradualism", an inherent quality of developmental change.

Jain's text Community Development and Panchayati in India (1961) provided a model which attempted to make a more systematic and analytic type of evaluation research possible for community development projects. This model utilized a theoretical base for measuring outputs and identifying planned, unplanned and inter-active effects that can be utilized for process and output evaluation. The model identified two types of growth or change as the subject base for evaluation in community development: quantitative/aggregative growth or change which is easily subjected to statistical analysis; and structural growth or change which employs more qualitative measures. Jain's work, thus, appears to be one of the first attempts to evaluate change in terms of using both quantitative and qualitative criteria, the former having the advantage of being utilized in combination with comparative experimental techniques. He also stressed the need for both outcome and process evaluation procedures for community development.

The former colonial administrator T. R. Batten authored several major texts and articles (e.g. Training for Community Development, A Critical Study of Method (1962) and The Human Factor in Community Work (1965)) related to

community development and how to assess its effectiveness as a method to effect social change. His emphasis was on the use of narrative reports as an analytic technique, Batten (1962: 1-2) offered some suggestions for the formulation of criteria in terms of assessing change relative to measuring immediate, intermediate and ultimate objectives:

> What criteria can we use to measure success in this kind of work? Is it enough for instance, that the worker should achieve his immediate purpose; . . . In fact this is not enough . . . for development to take place for the worker really to succeed,--the changes he promotes must have some lasting good effect . . . the more we think of development as a continuing process each stage of which has some good or bad-- or the attitude of people to the succeeding stage, the more concerned we shall be about the effect of each stage of development on the attitudes and relationships of people.

However, a major drawback of Batten's studies is that they appear to reflect a reluctance to perform more rigorous, systematic evaluations of program effects which Batten (1962: 71) perceives as being antithetical to the principles of the community development process. . .

> We have never attempted any more precise and any systematic evaluations partly because we do not think that the results would be sufficiently meaningful and partly because we feel it would be wrong to try . . . to us measurement of results in this particular field is not only difficult but also repugnant. Rapport for people is a core concept of CD.

Such a regressive attitude towards evaluation appears to have been shared by others and accounts for why, apart from the notable exceptions we have pointed out, community development failed

to generate many sound evaluation studies in its early history.

As community development became adopted in North America throughout the early 1960's there became a subsequent concern with evaluating its effectiveness but in a different context. That is, here community development programs were faced with more urban industrialized environments unlike those found in rural, agrarian villages. Thus, community development and its evaluation process had to be made more relevant to such settings while it exhibited more institutionalized constraints (e.g. political). As the works of James (1961) Clinard (1963) Biddle and Biddle (1965) and Lee J. Cary reflect significant insights into the role of evaluation for community development programs in an urban context, they will be examined in the rest of this section.

James (1961: 10) viewed community development programs as successes when they met the criteria appropriate to the community development movement. He offered the following three groups of criteria, related to the primary goal of the community development tradition, namely, to make a community a better place in which to live: first, the voluntary establishment of a local organization designed to meet the needs of a community; second, increased communications and interaction between community members; third, the development of procedures and techniques utilized by communities to meet local needs. James significantly points out that a number of emerging alternatives provided by city planning departments and

government intervention is threatening its existence. In light of these emerging political constraints, he contends that it is time to redefine community development tactics, strategies and the ways of evaluating the effectiveness of its programs in meeting the needs of the communities they are designed to serve.

Marshall Clinard (1963) makes an important distinction between urban and rural community development evaluation studies. The former he sees as more difficult and concerned not just with physical results. Clinard defines three areas of concern in urban community development evaluation; program content, the impact of programs on the community, and their organizational aspects. Moreover, Clinard offered a broader base for evaluation going beyond the simple steps advocated by Hayes. He recommended that evaluations undertake a more systematic research approach through utilizing more sophisticated techniques such as participation rates, and surveys that can yield more qualitative data and criteria measures. Later, Wiledon (1970) elaborated on Clinard's evaluation techniques for yielding data, criteria and measures towards conducting evaluation research. They ranged from very simple to more complicated types; reports and record keeping of work done, rating plans, score cards, how to conduct interviews, arrange evaluation groups and review case studies. Similarly, Dennis Poplin (1972) expanded on the techniques of community research, and offered the community development practitioner a basic

introduction on how to conduct a social survey and utilize data from case histories and participation observation techniques.

The Biddles (1965) also expanded upon the need for more systematic evaluation in community development. The chapter entitled "Research Design" in their major text The Community Development Process is really a basic guideline for conducting social action research.

The Biddles (1965) advocate an approach to process analysis whereby an evaluation should emphasize the improvement of the quality of the community development process and not simply the assessment of changes occurring within the individual. Their emphasis is on the use of narrative reports. Records are kept of the results of meetings and accounts of action taken. Such records and non-judgemental accounts, they argue, should be reviewed periodically by community development workers, researchers and citizens. These narrative reports include data and some statistics from which can be derived general hypotheses and criteria for determining what constitutes improvements in people/individuals undergoing change processes: The Biddles stated (1965: 144) that an evaluation should consider

> . . . qualitative and quantitative treatment of describable items of experience in the flow of process. These should finally lead to conclusions about man in development which then become new general hypotheses for further testing.

The Biddles' emphasis upon moving from narrative reports to taxonomies and hypothesis testing significantly reflects an interest in advancing more systematic evaluation techniques through applied action research.

Lee J. Cary edited a text (1970), Community Development As a Process which contains some chapters on evaluation. Although the author's works in Cary's text remain at the conceptual level offer no specific criteria and to evaluate change, the works of Sanders, Sutton and Schler do offer significant insight and leading statements and principles towards conducting systematic evaluations in community development. For example, Irwin Sanders (1970) stressed the need for applied theory in community development and argued that the "application of social service methods can be used to try and clarify the process through which community changes are achieved".

Also, Sutton (1970: 80) urged that evaluations in community development. . .

> should demonstrate the consistency between action episodes and societal values .

These action episodes are a way of subjectating the community development process to empirical research. His breakdown of action episodes is in terms of group cohesion, social capital "know how" and the use of financial resources. And the relationship of these four factors to the success of a community development program suggest areas of evaluating change. Finally, Daniel Schler (1970: 142) emphasizes process evaluations, suggestions for criteria, and the importance of considering

wide effects when assessing long range goals of community development as, in his words:

> Those who study the effects of community development programs . . . [are] advised to include evaluation instruments to determine to what degree prospective goal setting, self help, joint enterprise endeavors, democratic human relationships and rational-concerted decision-making and action have become institutionalized into the over-all structure of a community system . . . to consider the tendencies for behavioral and social change that the community development process implies. . . . Upon closer observation it may be discovered that the residual results are more important for human survival in the long run than the immediate goals.

The provision of the conceptual basis for conducting more systematic evaluations in community development through applied research was a trend that continued in the early 1970's. For example, Hobgood (1972) noted that the tendency in community development work was to move directly from theoretical to concrete recommendations without an investigation of the particular situation which could be systematically investigated through various types of applied research (e.g. descriptive and economic, problem orientated, operations and professionaism). Hobgood contended that evaluations should be directed at assessing socio-economic and personal effects resulting from community development programs in terms of both material, physical criteria and qualitative criteria such as changes in people's values, attitudes, perceptions or prejudices. Hobgood saw evaluation research as being central to all other forms of research, and it should become more widely used in community development as it provided the basis of growth and development

that prevented any program or organization from degenerating, stagnating or repeating past mistakes.

Similarly, Epstein, Tripodi and Fellin (1973) have noted the recent rising demand for community development evaluations as community development administrators have come under increased pressure from funding sources, professional pressure groups and clientele to provide systematic evaluations of their programs. The broadening of the term evaluation as a management technique for the administration of community development programs is particularly novel to these three researchers. They recognize that through evaluations, community development administrators can provide a framework for decision making about programs based on available and objective information. This, in turn, can be used to provide more efficient and effective community development programs. Furthermore, as did Hobgood, they broaden the term "evaluation research" to encompass other than traditional research activities such as pure, basic, or operational and encourage community development administrators to select from the available research techniques those which can be most appropriately utilized for evaluating social action community development programs.

In summary, the appraisal of literature to this point, illustrates that there exists a minimal amount of evaluation literature from the early history (early 1960's) of community development and those existing evaluation studies were based on unsystematic approaches and dealt primarily with theoretical

concepts and reflected an interest mainly in problem definition rather than in ways and means of applying evaluation to community development programs. Nevertheless, those significant leading statements on the techniques and basis for formulating a framework related to evaluations in community development can be summarized:

1. The effects of change (e.g. upon the individual institutions, and overhead capital) should be assessed in terms of both short-term and more importantly long-term objectives.

2. The evaluation process should be conducted in accordance with the way in which a program was planned.

3. The emphasis should be upon assessing ongoing effects of change initiated by the community development process and not just upon its outcome in light of revealing partial results whose significance must be considered in order to more properly assess the program's success.

4. Both quantitative and qualitative criteria and measures should be developed towards assessing program objectives.

Also, it has become apparent from this appraisal that the mid 1960's witnessed the emergence of a new generation of community development practitioners which recognized the need for more evaluation studies in community development and noted that they should reflect more systematic, objective evaluation approaches for determining the legitimacy of community development programs, to generally upgrade the quality of community

development evaluation reports, to demonstrate accountability to support agencies. However, these efforts remained primarily at the theoretical basis and remained primarily as anectodal case studies (MacKeracher, Davie, Patterson, 1976). In this way evaluation in community development could be perceived of as an "art" (Voth, 1975, and Lafleur, 1977) as such studies reflected little attempt to go beyond the conceptual level and provide for systematic, rigorous evaluation studies through the provision of frameworks for practical use. However, an exception to this generalization can be found in a study conducted by Lovell and Riches (1967-1968) who developed a framework which integrated both quantitative and qualitative criteria and measures for systematically evaluating attitude changes in the individual which occurs from his involvement in a community development program. They hoped that such a framework would aid community development workers to evaluate more systematically the progress of their work and the effectiveness of their methods.

Lovell and Riches defined the two primary objectives of community development as; the betterment of environments and the betterment of people. The former can be measured relatively easily in quantitative terms (e.g. facilities). The latter change however is more difficult to measure as it requires the measurement of qualitative items such as changes in attitudes. The two researchers went on to identify a group

of nine major attitudes which must change if a program is to be perceived as a success: apathy, feelings of inadequacy, self centeredness, ignorance, prejudice, mistrust, gullibility, impetuosity and instability. Next, Lovell and Riches formulated 17 measurable criteria with which to assess whether an increase or decrease has occurred in some or all of these characteristics. Lovell and Riches then compiled a list of seventy-six indicators of these criteria which include both quantitative and qualitative items. They continued their analysis by attempting to illustrate pictorially through charts and graphs the differential applicability of the various criteria to the nine major attitudes requiring change, thereby providing an overall picture of change in depth. The charts and graphs provided by Lovell and Riches provide the first significant attempt to provide the evaluator with a visible picture with which to hypothetically assess change in a more systematic and rigorous way.

In short, Lovell and Riches study appears to be a significant "stepping stone" bridging the gap between community development being perceived as a "science" rather than as an "art". That is, the framework they developed reflected one of the first significant attempts to go beyond the conceptual level and to actually provide more systematic evaluation studies (e.g. the development of criteria and measures) in community development, a trend which would continue throughout the next decade through an application of social action methodologies.

PART TWO

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT EVALUATION AS A "SCIENCE"

Although, as Burton (1975: 45) pointed out, there still remains a lack of sound evaluation studies in community development it appears from the increasing body of literature that the interest in evaluation studies generated in the 1960's has continued to grow in the field over the past decade towards providing for more effective evaluation studies. This trend has been particularly prompted by the fact that today particularly in the face of growing demands for accountability from funding sources, there has become as Burton noted (1978: 45) a growing insistence on and call for more and better evaluation. Consequently, community development practitioners are devoting more time and resources towards providing more systematic program evaluations. Moreover, such systematic methodologies are based on many of the attributes of social action research which has been defined as having an: emphasis on the introduction and observation of planned change; problem centered, emphasizing some improvement on some socially desirable goal; utilizes partial use of empirical science; emphasizing a systems approach; is most effective when applied in complex, rapidly changing systems; concerned with variables which appear to make some difference in the performance of the system (e.g. utilization of human resources, control and leadership collaboration and conflict); focuses on the quality and nature

of relationships with the client group or organization which is the target of the planned change; and the relationship between the action-researcher and evaluator presents unique role requirements. (Carter and Wharf, 1973: 31). Moreover unlike other forms of traditional research such as pure, basic or operational, action research appears to appropriately handle the value laden nature of both evaluation and the community development process. Consequently, as pointed out by Burton (1978: 45) research as part of the evaluation process has been made more meaningful when seen in its proper place in that process.

As it is an investigation of evaluations in community development as applied action research, it then follows that the material in this chapter will be organized to cover the four evaluation levels--input, process, product, context--and corollary evaluation activities (preformative, formative and summative).

The purpose of this organizational basis is to examine the role of evaluation based on applied social action research and the extent to which it has contributed towards more systematic evaluations in community development and hence, moving it in the direction of being perceived of as a "science" and not of an "art".

INPUT EVALUATION LEVEL

The Setting of Objectives

Voth noted (1975: 150) that one of the major conceptual problems inherent within community development programs is that

goals are often ambiguous vague, abstract and complex and thus, very difficult to state in operational terms. However, it appears that more precise objective guides and sound indications for evaluating community development programs have been acquired through applying the techniques of social action research; the conceptualization of objectives performed in accordance with the theoretical premises of the overall program plan; and in addition with the preformative evaluation activity defined as needs assessment which provides an informational base or input into the setting of objectives.

Beal, Coward, and Brooks (1971: 57) made one of the first conscious efforts to reduce the intangible nature of community development goals which are often reduced to the level of various program actions with which the organization is familiar and which it is willing to implement. They specify development objectives according to a means--end schema conceptualizing the range which they have established in accordance with the theoretical premises of the community development process. Such a schema helps to discover the important linking or intervening variables occurring in the change process that provide guidelines on what to measure and how to measure it.

Specifically, the model developed by the authors illustrates the change sequence between socio-psychological and structural variables and indicates the assumed direction of the causal relationships. It assumes that institutions and social conditions have effects upon an individuals' behaviour

and attitudes which either enhance or retard institutional development. Such a causal relationship depicted from the theoretical premises of community development is noted later by Schabel and Sinani (1975: 113) who saw that. . .

> unless community development efforts result in such things as a rising level of housing, recreation, access to goods and services necessary for psychological and physiological welfare effective development has not occurred.

Finally, after setting the overall program goals Beal, Coward and Brooks (1971: 48) suggest conceptualizing the range of development objectives and development measures to help clarify when goals are not being met. In order to achieve this a taxonomy of a range of development goals should be developed so that. . .

> general level concepts in the taxonomy could be operationalized to lower sub-components which provide clearer direction for program activities and the measurement of results.

Such a taxonomy is reflective of Suchman's ordering of objectives into immediate, intermediate and ultimate categories in order to guide the researcher in conceptualizing objectives and developing precise and appropriate measures to evaluate their effects. This taxonomy has been applied by Bennett (1975) (see Chapter 2, pp. 5-6) towards evaluating extension programs and will be similarly used in the framework developed in this thesis.

A significant development is that there has evolved a clear recognition that there are two separate sets of community development goals: task/concrete objectives and

process objectives which according to Cebotarev and Brown (1972: 45) are merely two different change strategies working towards the same ultimate goal of improving the quality of life for members in a community engaged in a community development program.

Task orientated objectives refer to development sequences directed at changes in the social/physical environment (e.g. institutions, services or facilities which a community needs and wants) and emphasize change in quantitative terms. In contrast process objectives are according to Voth (1975: 43). . .

> not content, i.e., facilities or services of some kind, but initiation of a process in which all people of a community are involved, through their representatives, in identifying (taking action in respect to their own problems. . . . The objective is less that of some specific reform that is development of community integration; capacity to function as a unit in respect to common problems.

In other words, process objectives reflect the ability of the community to solve its problems and make collective decisions. In this way the process objectives reflect qualitative changes which community development programs try to effect and as they embrace the same theoretical principles of the community development process--a process of purposive social change evaluating community citizens participation in the decision-making process of defining and meeting their own felt needs--it is not surprising that the setting and evaluation of qualitative changes related to process objectives is the focal point of the majority of community development evaluations. Thus, as

MacKeracher, Davie and Patterson (1976: 6) point out an evaluator needs to decide which he wants to examine, either the process objectives, task objectives, or both, prior to designing an evaluation system because the failure to distinguish between the approaches lead to a failure to develop criteria and measures appropriate to each. For example, the misconceptualization of the program as task orientated rather than process orientated was responsible for the failure of an evaluation performed on community development programs in India by Gavin Kavinaratne (1976).

In short, the conceptualization and measurement of program objectives has been performed with more ease in community development when done in accordance with the theoretical premises of the overall program plan. Moreover, the theoretical premises of a community development program indicate that there are two separate sets of objectives, namely, task and process for which the community development practitioner must define both quantitative and qualitative criteria and measures in order to assess their effects upon the consumers of a community development program.

Community Needs Assessment

It would seem useful for the purposes of this thesis to broaden the concept of needs assessment to that of community assessment, which according to Mitchell (1977: 33) is an analysis of community strengths, weaknesses and the determination

of priorities with consideration being given to already existing resources and provides an important informational base which aids in the conceptualization and setting of objectives most relevant to the program under evaluation. A familiarization with the most widely used techniques for conducting community needs assessment (e.g. citizen survey) has been performed in chapter 2. It is an investigation of their application in community development which will be the focus of this section.

Blake, Kalb, and Ryan (1977) noted that citizen surveys have played an important role in conducting community needs assessments, several of which will now be examined.

Nix's (1971) Community Reconnaissance Method was one of the first efficient, quick techniques for assessing relevant aspects of the community's social structure and process through the use of leader respondants as respondents. According to Nix (1971: 69) the purpose of the survey is to help local citizens, leaders and groups to . . .

1. identify the felt needs: and problems of the community.
2. rank in priority the need; problem areas to be dealt with.
3. organize or mobilize to deal with chosen needs: problems.
4. study the identified needs: determine specific goals.
5. develop a plan of action to accomplish locally-determined goals.
6. find resources to accomplish goals.
7. act to accomplish goals.
8. evaluate accomplishments.

Nix concludes that through the use of his method, the assessment of the community's social structure and processes can provide an important informational base towards more effective planning of programs designed to effect change in a community.

Cohen, Sills and Schwebel (1977) advocate a two stage process for surveying community needs that is based on an open-ended survey and close-ended questionnaire. By using this two stage interview process a wider range of people's problems can be uncovered and can help to determine the prevalence and severity of such problems in the service area. Such a procedure helps to reduce much of the bias inherent within questionnaire writing and provides the researcher with a more realistic picture of community needs based on more input for the people in the community.

Dillman (1977: 33-37) noted that due to constraints of expenses the researcher is forced to rely on "independent surveys" which he feels are inadequate. Such surveys are undertaken independently from the actual policy setting process and contain no clear definition founded in policy issues but rather those definitions produced from "arm-chair deliberations" whereby questions from previous surveys are revitalized and in this way general rather than specific attitudes are sought. Dillman's alternative is the "synchronized survey" which is conducted through mail and telephone data collection methods. The "synchronized survey" demands that the survey researcher spend most time interacting with all decision-makers

both the policy makers and citizens and thereby doing a much better job "of measuring people's preferences and bringing them to bear on policy decisions" than done in the past when only independent surveys were conducted.

In short, it appears that significant attempts have been made to make community needs assessments a more co-operative effort between human service management and those it is designed to serve. In this way, it appears that such approaches are acquiring greater community development orientation whereby citizens actively participate in the decision-making processes of defining their own felt needs and informational base, thereby assisting in providing input for the conceptualization of objectives.

In summary, the input evaluation level in conducting evaluations of community development programs has increasingly applied the principles of social action research; the setting of objectives in accordance with the theoretical premises of the overall program plan; and the utilization of input or information received from a community needs assessment towards conceptualizing program objectives.

PROCESS EVALUATION LEVEL

Specification of Measures

In short, the preceeding section indicates that the responsibility of the community development practitioner is on evaluating the changes which a community development program

attempts to effect in the community in both quantitative (task objectives) and qualitative terms (process objectives).

Defining measures for task objectives is fairly easy to establish as they deal with physical things which can be seen and touched (e.g. facilities) and can be easily assessed through quantitative measures (e.g. numbers existing in a community). However, defining measures to assess process objectives referring to socio-psychological development such as changes in institutions (e.g. local decision-making processes) or changes in the individual (e.g. behavioural changes) are more difficult to establish as they deal with qualitative variables that one cannot touch or easily observe. But as they are the primary focus of evaluation studies in community development then every effort must be made to develop both quantitative and qualitative criteria and measures which as Reyburn (1975: 56) contends will produce more professionally competent evaluations in community development.

The measuring of behavioural changes has been the objective of many community development evaluations and includes such things as measuring changes in knowledge, skill, aspirations. The study by Lovell and Riches (1967-1968) reflected a significant attempt at developing both quantitative and qualitative measures with which to measure attitude changes (see pp. 14-15). Also, as Reyburn (1975: 56) points out, the measurement of changes in knowledge and skills has now been performed extensively and with relative ease in community development.

Reyburn suggests that aspirational change deserves more attention and could be measured through simple pre- post-tests that could indicate if the original career aspirations have been brought closer to those perceived by the program recipients. Reyburn concludes that as practice changes (e.g. changes in local decision-making processes) affect the whole society, then evaluation studies here are another important focus for community development. It appears that Reyburn is suggesting a broader evaluation base for community development; in other words to not confine itself to concentrating on assessing only behavioural changes.

Voth, (1975: 151) indicates that what needs to be achieved is to state objectives more clearly with respect to the individual, family, group, neighbourhood or community in order to place such objectives into more operational terms for which can be developed more precise and empirical criteria and measures. A notable example of how this has been achieved lies in a study conducted by Smith (1977: 31) who contended that community development researchers need to borrow and modify the performance criteria defined in other areas, such as education, in order to develop performance criteria appropriate specifically to community development. In his evaluation scheme Smith lays out eleven attributes from which ideally researchers could develop criteria and measures of desirable field performance in community development. Smith contends that criteria of performance should be developed through a three

stage cyclical process where at each phase measurement criteria are refined. According to Smith (1977: 33) phase one should develop a definition of effective community development performance. Phase two then defines criteria and instruments based on this definition. And finally, phase three should validate instruments utilizing research designs and predictable valid techniques such as interviews, rating scales, performance tests and observation schedules. Analysis of data can also include more sophisticated techniques such as Critical Incidents Analysis or Retranslation of Expectation. In reply to the following question, laid out by Smith (1977: 38). . .

1. what aspects of community development are reliable?
2. how can community development performance be reliably observed?
3. how can reliable bias-free ratings or judgements of performance be obtained?
4. what discrete performance indicators are likely to be most relevant, empirically related to global assessment of adequate performance.

can be derived partial answers that can aid in the development of more refined measurement procedures which in turn can provide more sophisticated ways of answering questions Smith concludes that through the use of his framework can be developed a more empirical approach for performance evaluation in community development. Smith hopes that it will provide a starting point from which the growing number of community developers can more accurately evaluate their impact, and define and measure levels of field performance in a more rigorous and systematic way.

In short, the preceeding section has illustrated that both quantitative and qualitative criteria and measures directed at assessing task and process objectives must be developed by the community development practitioner. Moreover, when dealing with qualitative changes (e.g. process objectives) and the development of subsequent criteria and measures, there is a great deal of demand placed upon the evaluator to apply judgement, scientific precision and subsequently, to select the most appropriate research design to study and evaluate the effects of both quantitative and especially qualitative change.

Research Designs

The trend in community development has been towards adopting descriptive designs which appear to be the most feasible and advantageous towards studying quantitative and especially qualitative changes.

Through the use of descriptive designs, more than one stage of the causal process is incorporated into the analysis. Data are collected on what actually occurred during the process of various program stages; how the program was conducted; who participated in particular activities; and the quality of their participation based on psychological behaviour changes in such things as knowledge, skills, aspriations and attitudes which have been the target of many community development evaluators. In this way research can be made more meaningful when seen in

its proper place in the evaluation process, as it enables the community development practitioner to more holistically examine, measure and understand the effects of qualitative changes brought about by community development programs.

MacKeracher, Davie and Patterson (1976: 5) have noted the lack of dependable and descriptive methods for making evaluative judgements about the effects of changes brought about by community development programs. The authors have provided a dependable and descriptive method for data collection and making judgements known as the SHAPES SYSTEM (Shared Process Evaluation System). It is a useful descriptive evaluation system that involves the collection of a material in a way that more clearly documents, understands, monitors, and evaluates the process undertaken in community development programs.

SHAPES incorporates the setting of goals by both the community agents and the community participants in order to reveal patterns of shared change. In this way it remains sensitive to the people's needs, as the success of a community development program ultimately depends on whether the people themselves benefitted from the process. One of the most beneficial aspects of the SHAPES is that it provides visual pictures of the process in the form of a set of matrices. This is helpful in assisting agents and participants to see the pattern of what actually occurred.

Voth (1975: 156) noted the great need for dynamic causal models in community development which would guide the evaluator in formulating his descriptive research design. Moreover, he alluded to the fact that such a model laying out in their respective order the cause and effect variables could be achieved in accordance with the theoretical premises of the program. Later, Lafleur (1977: 98) advocated the use of the "Theory Based Evaluation Approach" which would serve as an overriding paradigm for the researcher in implementing a research design most appropriate towards evaluating community development programs. In this approach according to Alkin and Fitz-Gibbon (1975: 11). . .

> when a program is designed to implement a model, a theory or a philosophy, the evaluator must select his variables in conformity with that model theory or philosophy. He may or may not measure the outcomes predicted by the theory. This type of evaluation has been called "theory-based" evaluation.

In this way the theory points out a causal relationship between a process A and an outcome B. In other words, A leads to B or causes B. When a theory-based evaluation is planned, the variables chosen for study are those which a theory indicates are crucial in producing the desired program outcomes. The theory chosen is defined and the degree of its operationalization within the program is documented. Theory based evaluations would resemble those traditionally used to measure the degree of program implementation through tools such as questionnaires, records, interviews and observations.

According to Alkin and Fitz-Gibbon (1975: 3) Theory Based Evaluations may be used when . . .

> the evaluation of process must be attempted and the program is aiming at distant or intangible outcomes when the program evaluated is itself based upon a theory, model or philosophy.

The above quotation explicitly emphasizes an examination of the process whereby change occurs rather than an emphasis on outcome. The importance of this in the evaluation of community development programs has been well documented by Cohen (1976).

Cohen (1976: 19) noted the importance of an ongoing examination of process which reveals significant, unanticipated side effects which must be accounted for in determining the real success or failure of a community development program. Such important partial results can go unnoticed if attention is primarily focussed on the program's outcome. For example, Cohen cited an evaluation study conducted on community development programs in Ohio that attempted to increase citizen participation. By its outcome the program appeared to fail in reaching its goals; but a further analysis of process showed that success had totally been achieved as a number of factors from the implementation really did have a positive impact on the community.

One of the most recent studies to illustrate the importance of process evaluations in light of revealing positive partial results has been conducted by Daley and Winter (1978) who designed a community evaluation model to study the impact on communities from a nutrition program implemented by Peace

Corps volunteers. They stated that Peace Corps community development programs have not lacked for tangible results in the form of physical improvement projects which yield the basic measures of impacts. However, they contend that no definition of success should be restricted to such material products, as the evaluation of Peace Corps only in terms of the formal pre-stated objectives would miss the point of their important community development process goals such as democratic participation (i.e. objectives to increase the percentage/number of citizens engaged in community decisions and the adoption and utilization of specific democratic procedures in community decision-making) operationalized as program objectives. Content objectives were not identified early in the change process in order for them to remain flexible enough and evolve as a natural response to meet the expressed needs of the community. In this way the design could assess both intended and unanticipated effects that could evolve during the implementation of the nutrition program by the Peace Corps. Although the outcome of the nutrition program appeared on the surface to reveal negative results, an assessment of what happened during its process revealed the following important, unanticipated positive results laid out by Daley and Winter (1978: 72-72). . .

1. While engaged primarily in the nutrition program, volunteers became involved in other areas (e.g. agriculture, education, community utilities) all of which proved to benefit from the presence of Peace Corp members.

2. Peace Corps volunteer presence contributed to limited changes in resource allocation within the community.

3. Increased participation in community decision-making and co-operation was due to the efforts of volunteers.

Thus, these "spin-off" or unanticipated products of volunteer efforts which were revealed through a process evaluation became the most important factors on community impact in the eyes of volunteers and community members, as an evaluation of process illustrated that the Peace Corps nutrition program had a successful impact on individuals and institutions in the communities surveyed. In short, as often there is no correlation between a program's outcome and process, unanticipated consequences must be considered in assessing the impact of a program. Community development evaluators should continue to emphasize the evaluation of process through descriptive research designs.

Inductive, descriptive designs are used in accordance with the systems model approach. Lorion (1977) has already defined the theoretical premises of the community development process as being founded in the same basic principles, values, and beliefs of the systems model. According to Lorion (1977:22) this approach . . .

1. Assumes that the community as an environment, sense of belongingness, or however defined, shapes an individual's behaviour in both positive and negative ways providing resources

for adequate coping as well as imposing forms of stress and restricting the range of alternative solutions.

2. Assumes that within a community there exists an identificable set of systems (e.g. education, social services, legal, judicial, political, recreational) affecting positively and negatively psychological states of its members.

3. Assumes that communities and their relevant systems proceed through identifiable stages and transitory forms, which can be considered systematically in the design and implementation of interventions.

4. Assumes that involvement in communities and the systems requires a synergistic exchange between conceptualization and program implementation such that each develops through the efforts of the other.

The theoretical premises provided by Lorion's systems model equips the community development practitioner with the research base for improving ways of planning, implementing and evaluating systematic changes in communities and their institutions.

A notable contribution using a descriptive and systems approach comes from Campfens (1975) who advances a social policy/ community development framework which provides a systematic approach to social policy analysis in order to clarify the conceptual and operational issues inherent in the relationship between these two basic concepts.

Campfens identifies "the unadulterated economic cost-benefit" view of industrial man as underlying the majority of

policy/planning approaches. He stresses a communal view of man which sees man in terms of his psycho-social needs and quality of life issues. This latter view shows more respect for man and human values and in this way allies with the central concerns of community development. Campfens utilizes the theoretical premises of the communal view of man to formulate an alternative to the policy/planning models in order to emphasize the community as the organizational focus for meeting human needs and the focal point at which relevant community groups can become involved in the decision-making of the policy formulation and planning processes at all societal levels. He lays out prime intervention strategies and targets for evaluation research studies in community development and urges that community development be viewed in more realistic terms "as an essential part of society's total response to human need and social problems." Next, Campfens addresses in turn each of the weaknesses of evaluation research in community development which are its absence from adequately developed social development policies, government commitment and adequate changes in the decision-making system. Campfens concludes that from his framework of social policy/community development can evolve a systematic evaluation process which; first, considers the individual in society rather than industrial man and thus assumes more fully the community as the organizing principle for social policy; second, that community development as a problem-solving activity pursued at the local level can tie

into the decision-making structure and processes within all society generally; and third, recognizes that the activities of social policy should include participation by both the specialist and the local community groups; and finally, demonstrates that the specialist in social policy practice can be an effective link between legislative and community groups both of whom must have an effective amount of input into the decision-making system which allocates resources and defines policies which affect their welfare.

Thus, we have seen from the preceeding analysis that there is no longer an absence of descriptive designs or dynamic models of the community development process. Rather, a community development practitioner can utilize those outlined in this section such as the theory based approach, systems approach, or social policy/community development models in order to guide him in his research design to more wholistically examine task and process objectives and the theoretical basis of community development programs.

We have examined in the previous section the use of descriptive designs and dynamic models such as theory based or systems approaches and established their utility in conducting process evaluations and handling the theoretical premises of the community development process. However, in some instances the use of experimental or quasi experimental designs can enable the community theorist to test hypotheses which would otherwise not be testable since rarely can community variables be

manipulated for purposes of research. Voth (1975: 154) stated that the evaluation researcher of community development programs has in the past been unable to control assignment to experimental and control groups. However, a review of the most recent literature reveals that significant attempts at utilizing such empirically orientated studies have been made in evaluating performance studies of community workers.

Nicasto (1976: 73) noted that in the past efforts to evaluate community development training programs based on performance criteria have lacked the rigorous methods of experimental design (e.g. Richard Franklin (1971), Western Regional Resource Development Committee (1972)). Nicasto goes beyond these earlier studies which merely established performance criteria and measures and attempted to apply empirical research using standardized instruments in order to define and differentiate the field of community development from other professional helping occupations. Using the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, Nicasto compared a group of 84 community developers to 67 existing male occupational profiles. Results showed that the community developers were distinct from others in sixty-seven instances, thereby explicitly showing that community development practitioners held their own distinctive characteristics that could be subjected to more sophisticated, systematic performance evaluation research studies.

Bannon, (1977) used experimental design and control groups to systematically evaluate community development leaders

trained under the Roving Recreation Leader Training Guide as compared to those trained in traditional programs or those with no training at all. Bannon developed indicators to measure four sets of criteria (Figure 12). Results and conclusions from his rigorous design indicated that community developers were better workers when they underwent the Training Guide Program. Moreover, Bannon recommends that more adequate measures to evaluate the job performance of community development workers along with more precise, accurate data sources such as true/false and multiple choice tests. However, in light of the preceeding examination of evaluating community development performance programs in community development through empirically orientated designs, we can conclude that in some instances the use of the experimental design can be as useful a research technique for community developers as the descriptive, dynamic designs. Moreover, community development practitioners should not as Lafleur contended (1977: 98) restrict themselves to the last three levels of Ross's hierarchy identified as. . .

1. Classical Fisherian experiments, preferably with factoral designs;

2. Quasi-experiments with impure control groups (e.g. training program candidates compared with unemployed friends);

3. Correlational designs in which statistical controls are employed;

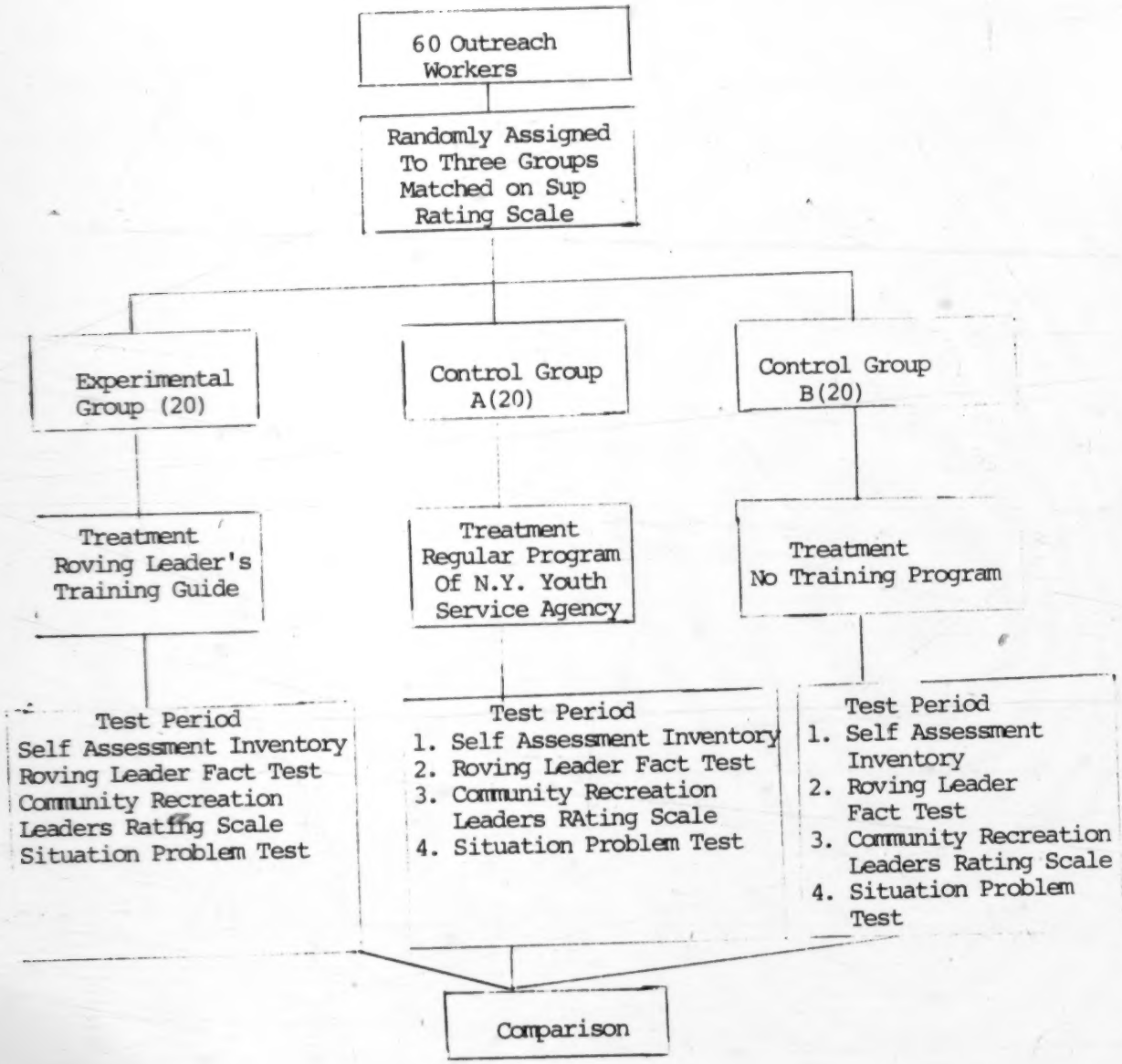
60 Outreach Workers
Randomly Assigned To Three Groups Matched on Sup Rating Scale
Experimental Group (20)
Control Group A(20)
Control Group B(20)
Treatment Roving Leader's Training Guide
Treatment Regular Program Of N.Y. Youth Service Agency
Treatment No Training Program
Test Period
Self Assessment Inventory
Roving Leader Fact Test
Community Recreation Leaders Rating Scale
Situation Problem Test
Test Period
1. Self Assessment Inventory
2. Roving Leader Fact Test
3. Community Recreation Leaders RAting Scale
4. Situation Problem Test
Test Period
1. Self Assessment Inventory
2. Roving Leader Fact Test
3. Community Recreation Leaders Rating Scale
4. Situation Problem Test
Comparison

Figure 12 Research design for the evaluation of the Outreach Training Program (From Bannon, 1977)

4. Audits of programs and projects, employing qualitative judgements by outside observers;

5. Narrative reports of program administrators.

In short, the author of this thesis is not suggesting in any way that traditional research methods (e.g. experimental design) are always appropriate for community development evaluations. On the contrary, the author of this thesis contends that in a majority of cases community development programs are more appropriately evaluated through descriptive, dynamic designs; but in some instances the community development practitioner should and can use the experimental model in conjunction with precise measuring devices and thereby implementing a reasonably powerful research design.

In summary, the process (formative) evaluation level is as demanding and time consuming as it is in other related social development fields. Community development practitioners are responsible for defining both quantitative and especially qualitative measures to evaluate the achievement of task and process objectives. In a majority of cases, the use of descriptive research designs in accordance with the systems-model approach appears to be most appropriate for investigating the process whereby qualitative change occurs. Moreover, the flexibility of descriptive and dynamic designs reveal unanticipated partial results which are important in determining the success or failure of a community development program. Finally, the

aversion towards utilizing the experimental design appears to be lessening as community development practitioners are recognizing that it can serve as a useful design for studying the changes effected by community development programs.

PRODUCT EVALUATION LEVEL

The product evaluation level is characterized by the activities of documentation and outcome (summative). Moreover, the preceeding section has emphasized the importance of process (formative) evaluation studies in community development as most programs are ongoing and not yet complete. However, there exists in the literature two significant outcome studies (Voth and Martin, 1974 and Voth, 1975) which contribute towards a more systematic accumulation and utilization of secondary data that has been greatly lacking and hence inhibiting the development of comparative studies for community development. It is the second study which will be examined as an illustration of how useful small samples taken from a population of groups or communities, can be used in conjunction with precise measuring devices and thereby create a reasonably powerful research design for an outcome study in community development.

Donald Voth (1975: 635-647) evaluated the impact of 29 community development programs in Southern Illinois. Voth used a probability sample of 29 program and 32 non-program communities to test the hypothesis that community development programs have an effect upon process and content variables at

the community level. The process variables used were voting participation and the number of candidates running for local elections. Content variables included four cumulative, unidimensional scales of the institutional structure within the communities, namely retail services, rural services, non-economic services and health services. Multiple regression techniques were used to test the hypothesis and Scalogram Analysis was used to create the scales. Findings indicated that community development programs are correlated with improvements in elite participation and in the scale of rural non-economic and health services. The evaluation illustrated that the 29 community development programs probably did have an effect on the services available in the target communities but the effects on participation were only partial. Clearly Voth's outcome study illustrates the ability of the community development practitioner to overcome crude measures, utilize small samples effectively in a sound research design, and by making systematic accumulation and use of secondary data, contribute to an increase in comparative studies in community development.

CONTEXT EVALUATION LEVEL

As Voth (1975: 157) stated program goals and objectives serve different functions for different people involved in making evaluative decisions regarding a community development program and often discrepancies over them have led to an adversary

relationship between administrator and researcher. For example, evaluators are often unable or reluctant to provide administrators with feedback or that which is provided is in overly scientific or technical jargon. In order to overcome these obstacles a research design should try to integrate collaborative efforts between the administrator and researcher in deciding on program objectives, operational measures acceptable to both parties and to try and anticipate consequences from the dissemination of evaluation reports in order that they do not become "used for some partisan purposes by politicians". In other words, Voth is advocating that a research framework should consider the issues relating to the organizational and socio-political contexts affecting the nature of the community development program and its subsequent evaluation.

A significant contribution towards overcoming such political problems and towards carrying out evaluation research that is more closely allied to the community development process "applied and used by public agency professionals" is founded in Burton's Systems-Process Approach (1978).

In order to provide a guide for conceptualizing evaluation efforts within a community development context, the systems-process approach identifies five major stages within the evaluation process and discusses the issues with which the evaluator must deal; developing the evaluation contract; specifying the program system and negotiating the evaluation scenario; evidence collection; making evaluative judgements;

and utilization and dissemination of evaluation results. Within each of these stages, Burton stresses the need for interaction and negotiation between all program stakeholders. Significantly, he extends the term "stakeholders" to include not just those intimately involved in the evaluation process (e.g. administrator and researcher) but also to the potential consumers of the program who are the community members. In this way, the systems process captures the basic theoretical premises of the community development process whereby citizens play an active role in defining and meeting their own needs. Clearly, Burton's approach is a significant starting point for developing a framework which more realistically assesses success of a community development program in terms of all stakeholders involved in the various subsystems within which a community development program operates.

Voth (1975: 159) noted that a political problem in community development research was the poor utilization of evaluation results which are often ignored by administrators. Or, as already noted, the evaluators are frequently unable or reluctant to provide administrators with feedback or that which they do provide is in overly technical and scientific jargon. In order to provide for more effective dissemination of evaluation results, Burton (1978) contends that the way in which results are prepared and delivered depends on who will utilize or receive them and should thus, be easily understood by all program stakeholders. For example, evaluation reports to

program participants may differ from those delivered to program administrators and all program stakeholders must receive the results from evaluators. Also, in this context, Willis Goudy and Frederick Wepprecht (1977) offer an interesting way of disseminating reseach data to residents in terms of "informative packages" which interested community citizens can utilize. In this way a joint effort is made between researchers, administrator, and community residents thereby helping to eliminate conflict and reduce political problems.

In short, it appears that community development practitioners are giving increased attention to the issues relating to the contextual elements revolving around and within their programs in order to make for a more complete research framework.

SUMMARY

The critical appraisal undertaken in this chapter suggests that the literature from the past two decades related to community development programs reflects a growing interest in their evaluation. And moreover, a number of significant attempts appear to have been made towards developing and improving evaluation methodologies through systematic, applied social action research. In this way, evaluation in community development is moving towards becoming a "science" and an "art" and such a trend has assisted in overcoming the difficulties often associated with conducting evaluations in community development for at least the reasons set down by Voth (1975: 150). . .

1. Ambiguity of goals in community development.
2. Absence of a model of the community development process.
3. Inability of the researcher to control assignment to treatments.
4. Weak effects, crude measurement, and small samples.
5. Political problems--the relationship between evaluation and program administration.

It appears that through the borrowing and modifying of those approaches from social action research which are most applicable to the community development field, the following advancements have been made. First, goals have become less ambiguous and stated in operational terms through clear recognition of two sets of community development objectives, namely task and concrete goals. In consequence, this has provided for more precise objective program guides and sound measures for evaluating the changes which community developers attempt to effect through community programs in both quantitative and especially qualitative terms. Moreover, the conceptualization of program objectives has been performed in accordance with community needs assessments which provide an important informational base or input from both the people of a community and the practitioner. Second, there appears to be an emphasis on assessing ongoing changes created by community development programs as they reveal unanticipated partial results whose significance should be considered in order to more properly evaluate the success of a program whose outcome is not always correlated with its process. Third, there is an emphasis on the use of descriptive designs and development of dynamic causal models

such as the theory based, systems and community development/ social policy approaches which have served as important guidelines for the researcher in assessing more wholistically the effects of the community development process. Fourth, no longer is there an aversion towards utilizing the experimental design because of the inability of the researcher to assign control groups, which allows for more systematic and objective evaluations. Fifth, the development of precise measures and effective use of small group samples have been integrated into reasonably powerful research designs for outcome studies in community development. Finally, the political atmosphere within which evaluative decisions regarding community development programs are made has become more compatible towards developing collaborative efforts between all program stakeholders, namely the researcher, administrator and consumers of the community development program.

However, despite this significant progress there remains a lack of systematic evaluation frameworks and procedures containing common classifications, criteria and indices related to community development. In order to fill this serious void, the final aim of this thesis is to design a simplified evaluation framework for practitioners in this field. It will combine first, the conceptual groundwork provided from "Evaluation as an Art" which depicted leading statements, principles, criteria and approaches related to community development evaluations; and second, those practical procedures of social action research

reviewed in chapter 2 whose relationship and applicability to community development was appraised in "Evaluation as a Science". The synthesis and overview of this material will provide the guidelines towards designing an evaluation framework which will hopefully assist in improving the state of evaluation practices in community development programs.

CHAPTER 4

A SIMPLIFIED FRAMEWORK FOR THE EVALUATION OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS: A SYSTEMS-PROCESS-CONTEXT APPROACH

Synthesis and Overview

At this point, it is useful to provide a synthesis and overview of the material covered in the preceeding chapters in order to clarify the basic premises constituting the framework developed within this chapter.

The distinguishing characteristics of community development programs indicate that a framework for evaluation in this field should be one that will:

1. Integrate the important components of all four evaluation levels--input, process, product, and context--and their corollary evaluation activities (pre-formative, formative, summative) into a systems model approach. In this way will be provided an overall descriptive study design for operationalizing the theoretical units of the program to provide for a more systematic evaluation.

2. Highlight the significance of both quantitative and qualitative changes/dimensions in terms of identified task and process objectives, whose conceptualization is achieved in accordance with the theoretical premises of the overall community development program and the informational

input provided from a community needs assessment.

3. Reduce the dimensions of task and process objectives into identifiable elements reflecting the nature of such objectives in both quantitative and especially qualitative terms.

4. Focus on the evaluation of process objectives and define their elements in relation to changes to be effected to the target community and/or individual and on changes to be effected on contextual factors (e.g. administrative and political). In addition, it should conceptualize the elements of process objectives in a hierarchical scheme based on immediate, intermediate and ultimate goals in order to make objectives more operational and subject to more precise measurements.

5. Develop both quantitative and qualitative measures to assess the elements characteristic of both the task and particularly the process objectives.

6. Emphasize in the framework the process evaluation level and its inherent formative evaluation activities focussed upon the implementation and progress of a program towards reaching its task and process objectives through the specification of both quantitative and qualitative measures.

In short, the framework tries to integrate what appears to be the most significant aspects of social action research related to community development evaluations into a systems-process-context approach.

Based on these particular characteristics the material in this chapter will follow an organizational basis which requires an undertaking of the following tasks: first, the major evaluation components will be identified as the four major evaluation levels (input, process, product and context) and their related evaluation activities within the preformative, formative and summative evaluation stages; second, the dimensions of the primary objectives pursued by the theoretical premises of a community development program will be identified as task and process objectives; third, a description of the characteristics of the evaluative dimensions will be given in terms of defining elements related specifically to each of the task and especially the process objectives; and fourth, quantitative and qualitative measures will be outlined in order to provide an objective and precise measuring base for the elements within the dimensions of task and process objectives.

A typology related to the preceeding four tasks for undertaking an evaluation of community developments program, has been illustrated in Figure 13. The terms, components, dimensions, elements and measures depicted in the typology have been borrowed from a study by Homenuck, Durlak and Morgenstern (1977: 103-119) though the typology itself is not theirs.

The framework developed in this thesis is meant to be a useful starting point for understanding what occurs in a community development program and outlines the basic steps to assist in evaluating its effects upon program recipients. In

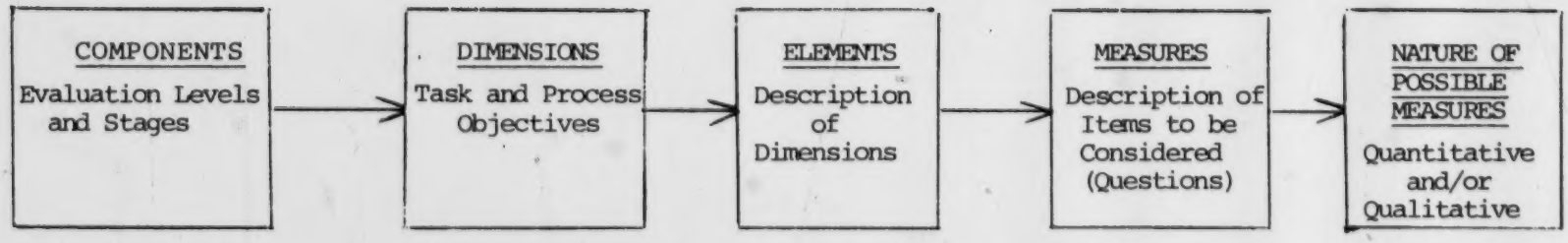

Figure 13 Typology of evaluation tasks related to community development programs

this way it is a learning framework whereby one can discover how to avoid mistakes and thereby improve the process as utilized in programs with community development orientation. The purpose is to improve the technical quality of conducting community development evaluations by providing a systematic and structured approach that will aid in determining the legitimacy of community development programs, to generally upgrade the quality of community development evaluation reports, and most importantly to demonstrate accountability, since clearly as monies become scarce community development practitioners will become increasingly pressed from funding sources to demonstrate accountability. One of the best ways to achieve this is through systematic evaluation approaches based on the principles of applied social action research.

The framework developed in this chapter is a simplified and general one. That is to say, this thesis will not concern itself with the application of this framework to a field project or actual case study. The purpose is limited to the development of a practical framework which can be tested and applied by others in the community development field (e.g. government or quasi-government agencies) which will aid in improving the state of evaluation practice in the field. Moreover, the framework has maintained flexibility so that it can be adjusted to meet the specific requirements of a community group or practitioner responsible for the evaluation of community development programs in urban settings. For

example, the framework has been developed in conjunction with the efforts of researchers at the Edmonton Social Planning Council so that such a community development agency can utilize aspects of its conceptual basis to assist in undertaking a practical evaluation of the programs it supports.

THE FRAMEWORK

THE SYSTEMS-PROCESS-CONTEXT APPROACH

Components of Evaluation

The major components in evaluating community development programs can be identified in relation to the four evaluation levels and corollary evaluation activities undertaken in the evaluation of other social action programs, which have been noted throughout the thesis.

These major components inherent within a community development evaluation have been synchronized and synthesized with a systems model approach illustrated in Figure 14. As shown, this perspective permits constant feedback by the administrator on perceiving a program's success in terms of both quantitative and qualitative changes effected upon an individual or community group. Figure 14 also illustrates and makes explicit the following. First, the community development program is evaluated in terms of decisions made during the preformative evaluation stages, defined here as program planning and community needs assessment. Together, these two activities

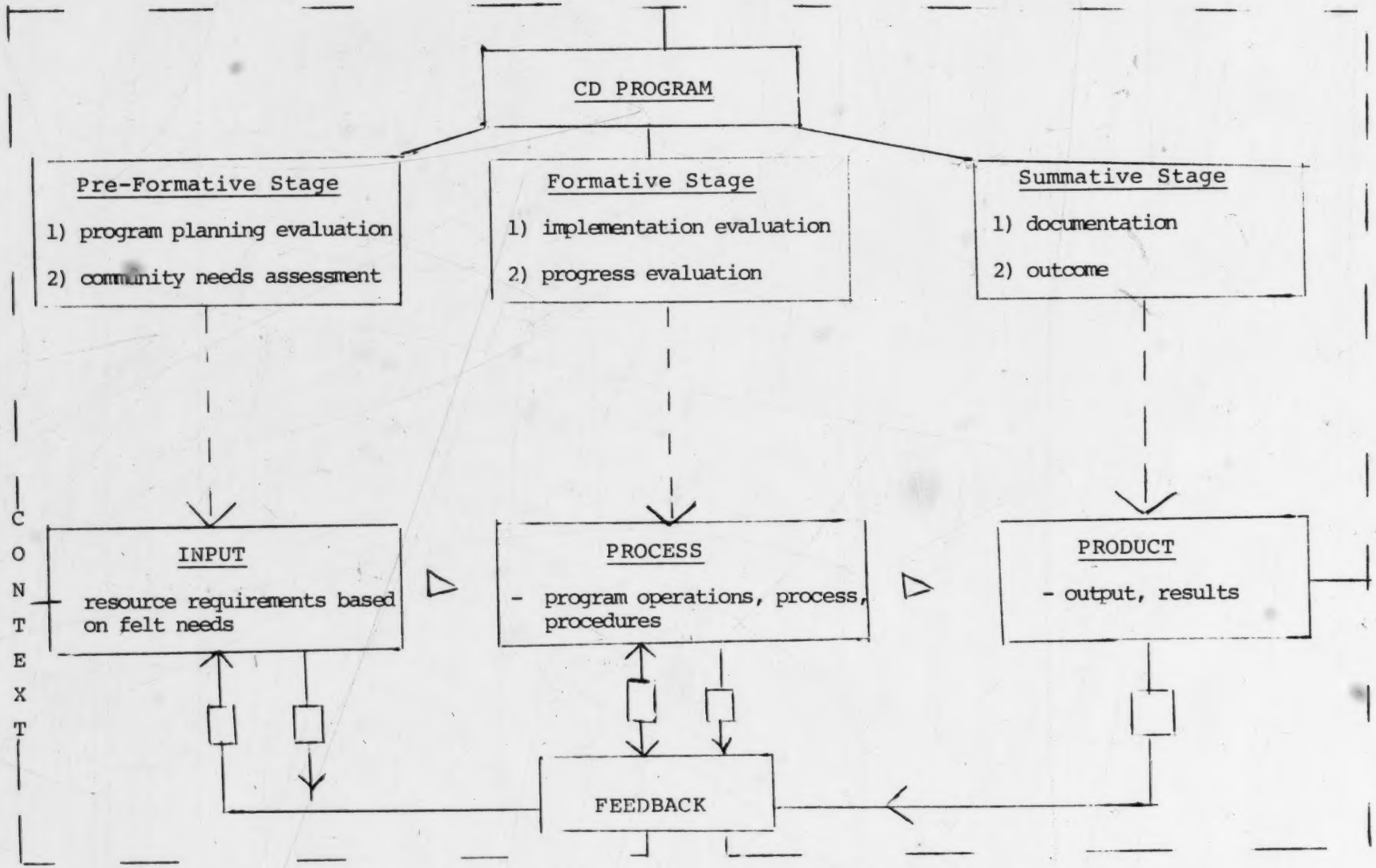

FIGURE 14 A systems-model approach to the components of evaluation in community development programs.

provide the informational base or input into the conceptualization and measurement of program objectives based on the felt needs of both the community and the administrator. Second, the community development program should also be evaluated in terms of judgemental decisions made during the formative evaluation stage where the emphasis is on examining the progress of the program during its implementation rather than at its end. In this way, emphasis is placed on an ongoing assessment of the program's process towards reaching the overall program objectives, specifying the qualitative and quantitative measures, and choosing the appropriate research design. Third, decisions where possible, can be made towards judging the product or outcome of a community development program (summative evaluations). Finally, a consideration of contextual factors influencing a community development program must be given consideration based on the assumption that the hypothesis, strategies and likely outcomes of an evaluation study are affected by such factors. Hence, the consideration of context helps to provide more realistic decisions made at the input, process and product evaluation levels (e.g. defining elements of dimensions in the formative evaluation stage).

In short, this dynamic causal diagram operationalizes the major components of the community development evaluation process, generating hypothetically for the researcher a number of theoretical units which describe the interactions between

these units and thereby provides an overall descriptive study design for the undertaking of a systematic evaluation approach to community development programs. It is the components of the process evaluation level and its corollary formative evaluation activities of implementation and progress towards assessing quantitative and qualitative changes/dimensions which will be the focus of this framework.

Dimensions of Evaluation Objectives and Related Elements

A consensus from the appraisal of evaluation literature in community development has established that its program objectives are to create quantitative and more importantly qualitative change in the individual and/or community. Moreover, there are two distinct program objectives, whose dimensions can be defined as task and process. Figure 15 illustrates that their conceptualization has been defined in accordance with the theoretical premises of the community development process. That is, both objectives are merely two different change approaches in the overall community development program towards reaching the same ultimate goal of improving the quality of life for the individual and/or community.

Task objectives refer to changes in social/physical environments such as facilities and services. These results are concrete, tangible and easy to measure in quantitative terms. In contrast process objectives, referring to socio-psychological development in the individual or collective changes in

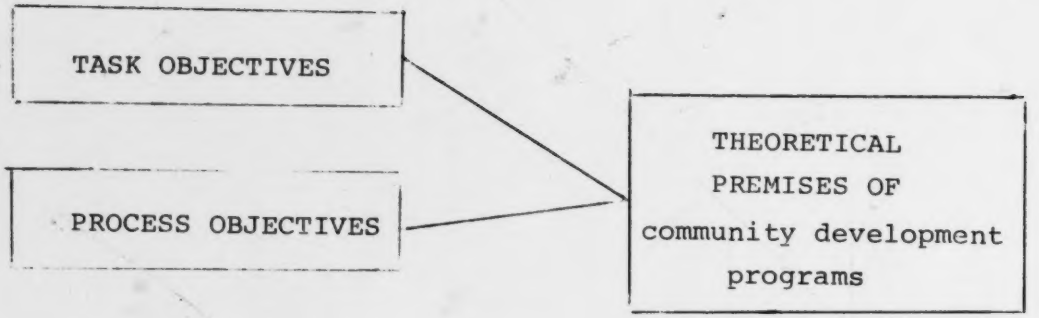

FIGURE 15 DIMENSION OF EVALUATION OBJECTIVES RELATED TO COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

the behaviour of participants engaged in a community development program is more difficult to measure quantitatively and they require the development of qualitative measures to assess their effects. Moreover, the appraisal of evaluation literature related to community development has indicated an emphasis upon the definition and measurement of process objectives and hence, they will be a focal point in this framework.

Within each dimension exists a group of more specific task/process requirements referred to as elements of the dimensions. The next step then becomes to identify an additional level of complexity; to delineate each dimension of task and especially, process objectives as they are the focal point of community development evaluations, into a number of related elements which can be later assigned quantitative and qualitative measures.

Table 1, p. 136 lists the elements of task as services and facilities. Specifically, services can be either direct, such as those provided by formalized institutions touching upon areas such as health, social welfare, judicial, recreation. Indirect services are those which have not been highly formalized by institutions or directed at a specific clientele and it is the latter group which are the main focus of community development as they reflect self-help schemes such as cooperatives, day care centers, and a host of services supplied by volunteer agencies designed to meet the felt needs of program participants.

TABLE 1

ELEMENTS OF TASK AND PROCESS OBJECTIVES

IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Elements of Task Objectives (1)	Elements of Process Objectives (2)
1. Services	1. Changes in administrative decision-making processes.
2. Facilities	2. Enhancement of individual's personal condition.
	3. Improved sense of community identity.
	4. Improved local decision-making processes.
	5. Ability to maintain a viable community in relation to the larger environment.
	6. Increase in government and/or political commitment.

Facilities are very interrelated with services as often one cannot provide a service unless there is a facility in existence; a partial facility may exist, but until its utility is demonstrated in the community it will not be expanded (e.g. a single service centre must demonstrate its utility before it is expanded into a multi-service unit).

Table 1, p.136 lists the elements of process as the following:

1. Changes in administrative decision-making processes.

Description of Objective. To develop within the practitioner an "innovative" orientation to administration whereby he works with the people by helping them to participate in defining their own needs and the ways to meet them. In this way collaborative efforts are created between the "practitioner" and community citizens ensuring that the program will maintain its community development orientation.

2. Enhancement of the individual's personal condition.

Description of Objective. To improve the socio-psychological conditions in the individual, family or community group and thereby improve the overall quality of life.

3. Improved sense of community identity.

Description of Objective. To develop an increased awareness of felt needs, community problems and issues within both the individual and collective community body. These developments will ultimately lead citizens to utilize the available resources to create self-help and self-reliant schemes

to meet the service needs of the community.

4. Improved local decision-making processes.

Description of Objective. To increase the decision-making powers of the people at the local level which will ultimately lead to a de-centralization of decision-making influences by outside power groups. In this way, the community will organize its collaborative efforts to make its own "action" strategies to meet outside influences imposed on it.

5. The ability to maintain a viable community in relation to the larger environment.

Description of Objective. To develop a recognition of the setting in which policies are made and to educate the community members in these important areas. Ultimately, this will enhance the ability of the community to communicate with larger environments (e.g. local government) and other communities.

6. Increased government and/or political commitment.

Description of Objective. To acquire financial support from larger funding bodies (e.g. government or non-government agencies). Also, to acquire political support from groups within the community (e.g. local power groups and elites) and outside the local level (e.g. city politicians, bureaucrats, city planners).

Figure 16 illustrates the conceptualization of elements of process objectives arranged in the form of a hierarchical scheme ranking several cognition levels of prime and supporting

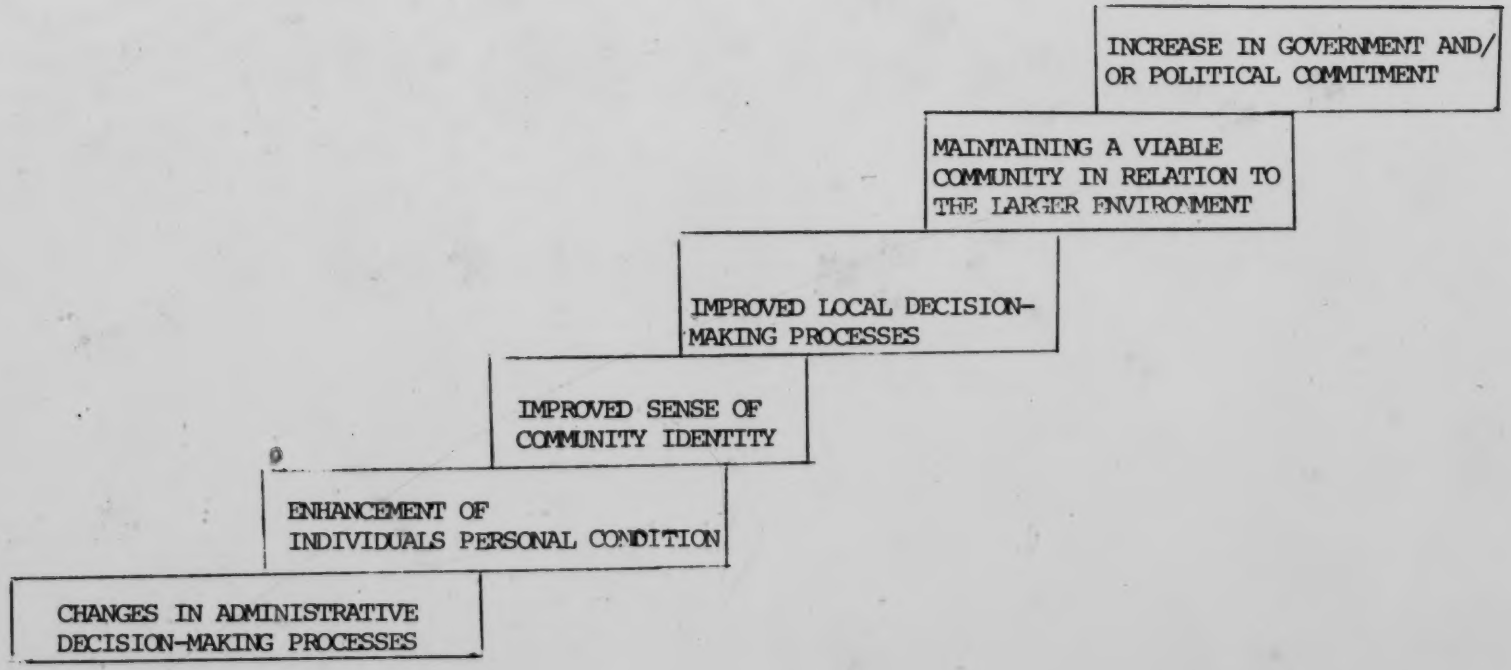
INCREASE IN GOVERNMENT AND/ OR POLITICAL COMMITMENT
MAINTAINING A VIABLE COMMUNITY IN RELATION TO THE LARGER ENVIRONMENT
IMPROVED LOCAL DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES
IMPROVED SENSE OF COMMUNITY IDENTITY
ENHANCEMENT OF INDIVIDUALS PERSONAL CONDITION
CHANGES IN ADMINISTRATIVE DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES

FIGURE 16 Hierarchy of the immediate, intermediate and ultimate elements of process objectives in community development programs

activities based on immediate, intermediate and ultimate aims.

In reviewing the spectrum of elements possibly related to process objectives, it was found that to date, the efforts of most evaluation studies in community development have been confined primarily to defining elements of process objectives related to assessing the effects of changes on the target community or individual partaking in a program. Although these elements are an important part of an evaluation framework in community development they should not constitute the entire basis for evaluation. Rather, elements must relate to assessing the effects of change on contextual factors that can affect the manner in which a community development program is delivered.

Contextual factors as illustrated in Figure 17, refer to the "social ecology" or those economic, social, cultural, pedagogical/organizational and political factors that are involved in the agency interfacing with the recipients of the program in the operation and maintenance of programs that are appropriate to community circumstances. Thus, in addition to identifying elements of process objectives directly related to creating changes in the individual and/or community group (e.g. enhancement of individual personal condition, improved sense of community identity, improved local decision-making processes and maintaining a viable community in relation to the larger environment), this framework has also identified those contexual elements as first, changes in administrative decision-

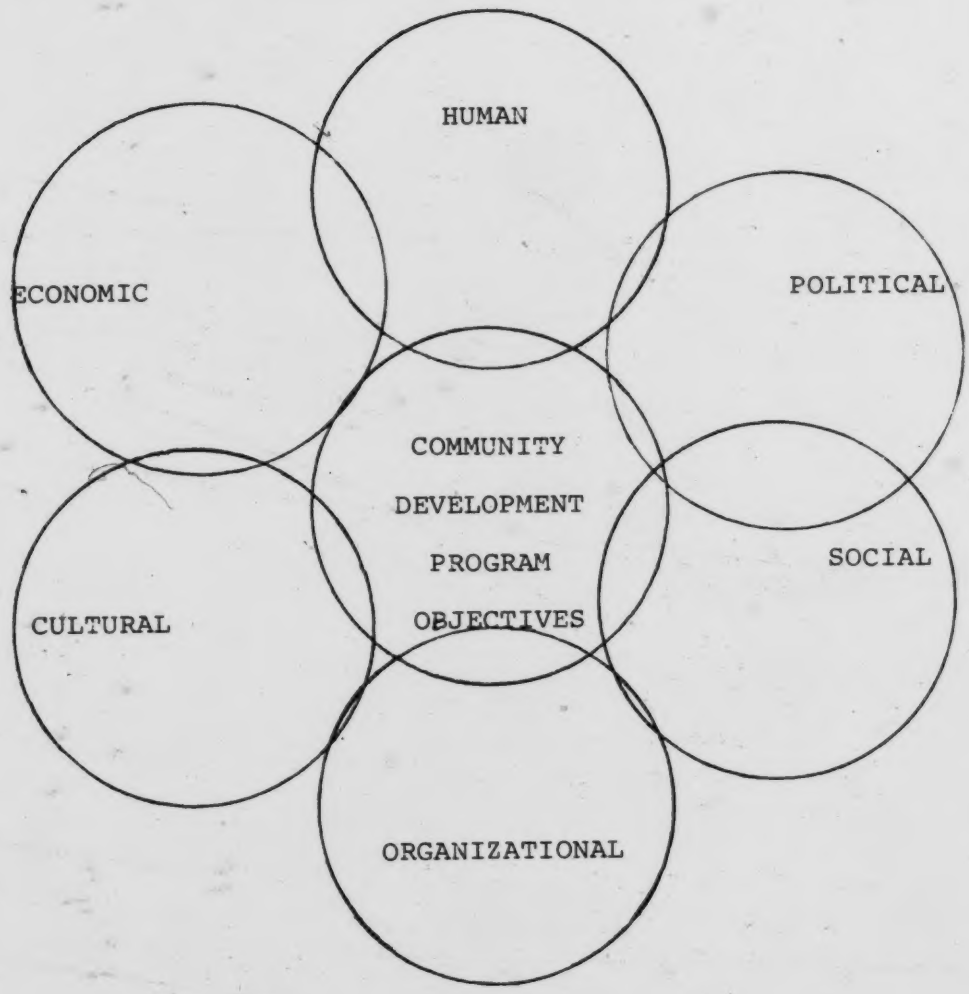

FIGURE 17 Contextual elements related to process objectives in community development programs

making processes; and second, increased government and/or political commitment. These contextual elements must be measured in order to more objectively and realistically assess the success or failure of a program in community development.

Evaluation Measures

The specification of measures for the evaluation of community development programs follows directly from the identification of the elements related to task and process objectives.

Two types of measures have been referred to throughout this thesis: quantitative and qualitative, the latter of which are subjective social indicators which measure how an individual or group perceives the situation within the program in which they are participating. Such subjective indicators assist in the relative ranking, clarification and significance of the quantitative measures and thus, they are not an end in themselves (Henderson, 1974). Qualitative measures are more intuitive and based on the experience and expertise of the evaluator. They are less "scientific" and could be transformed quantitatively but this is expensive and time consuming and unnecessary based on the premise that a necessary and important aspect of the evaluation process is to make informed judgements particularly with regard to assessing qualitative changes.

A list of both qualitative and quantitative measures for each dimension of task and process objectives which can

exist within a community development program is given in Table 2.

In Table 2, pp. 144-150 are designated the dimensions of task and process and below each category are listed the elements related to the particular set of objectives. In addition, the items to be considered in measuring the elements are described and listed in the form of questions in column 2. Finally, the nature of the measure is described as quantitative, qualitative or in cases when both types of measures appear then the term "mixed" has been utilized in column 3. A discussion of a few examples of the measures related to each of the elements of task (services and facilities) and process dimensions will now be outlined.

Recipients of a service (Table 2, p. 144,b) are relatively easy to describe as they can include senior citizens, youth or the various groups of disadvantaged people residing in a community. Data compiled from records on the numbers of people making use of a service are easily quantified and indicate the degree of involvement of people in the service. How accessible the service is made to community members can be determined by the ways and degree to which it is widely publicized (e.g. flyers, advertisements in community newsletters, radio announcements) and as this measure requires an amount of judgement on the part of the evaluator it is qualitative in nature.

The money spent on the building of a facility (Table 2, p. 145,e) and the costs to maintain its upkeep are easily quanitified. Costs of a facility relative to the amount of

TABLE 2

MEASURES OF EVALUATION

Task Elements (1)	Item to be Considered (Questions) (2)	Nature of Possible Measures (3)
1. Services	(a) What is the service and does it reflect a true community development orientation in meeting the client's felt needs?	Qualitative
	(b) Who are the recipients? (e.g. seniors, disabled etc.). How many are involved in the service? How accessible is the service to all community members? (e.g. how well publicized).	Mixed
	(c) What are the visible effects on people that have been receiving the service?	Qualitative
	(d) Extent to which it has a sound basis? (1) financially, is it appropriately supported by private or public sponsorship? (2) community support, is there a responsible and interested group of people behind the service?	Mixed
	(e) Has self-evaluation been done by the recipients of the service and administrators?	Quantitative
	(f) Is expansion of the service warranted in terms of the population growth or decrease?	Mixed

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Task Elements	Item to be Considered (Questions) (2)	Nature of Possible Measures (3)
2. Facilities	(a) How many are there in a community and are there a sufficient number to accommodate services in a community?	Mixed
	(b) What types? (e.g. multi-service facilities) and who do they cater to?	Quantitative
	(c) What is the degree of overlap of facilities?	Quantitative
	(d) How many dollars were spent on erection and maintenance costs?	Quantitative
	(e) Has there been a provision of employment opportunities, or is manpower provided through volunteers?	Mixed
	(f) To what degree do they meet the expressed needs of the community? (e.g. how many existing drop-in centres, rape crises centers).	Qualitative

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Process Elements (1)	Item to be Considered (Questions) (2)	Nature of Possible Measures (3)
1. Changes in administrative decision-making processes.	(a) How much information was collected prior to implementation based on the numbers of citizens surveys, community forums, interviews taken?	Quantitative
	(b) Was it good information? Questions clearly understood and readily answered by community?	Qualitative
	(c) Who responded to the information collected were they representative samples, special groups, or the entire community?	Mixed
	(d) Did evaluation occur? Were the number of alternatives distilled to workable amounts and reflective of priorities identified by community themselves?	Mixed
	(e) Did collaborative efforts between specialist and community occur in establishing felt needs?	Qualitative
	(f) What was the nature of contact between client groups and administrators/ agent of program?	Qualitative

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Process Elements (1)	Item to be Considered (Questions) (2)	Nature of Possible Measures (3)
2. Enhancement of the individual's personal condition	(a) What is the nature and type of the identified program recipients? - How many? - What age groups? - What social groups? - What economic status? (e.g. employed or unemployed) - What marital status? - What is their cultural and/or ethnic background?	Quantitative
	(b) What kinds of behavioural changes were measured? (e.g. changes in knowledge, skills, aspirations or attitudes such as levels of satisfaction, self-achievement and self-respect.	Mixed
3. Improved sense of community identity	(a) How many examples of self-help schemes exist through the use of local community resources? - numbers of local committees, co-operatives, numbers of existing volunteer activities, efforts.	Mixed
	(b) To what degree are local leaders or the local power structure used to mobilize the community towards action?	Mixed

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Process Elements (1)	Item to be Considered (Questions) (2)	Nature of Possible Measures (3)
	(c) How effective is the community towards mobilizing action? To what degree is an awareness of felt needs made through a dissemination of information through such things as public meetings?	Mixed
	(d) How creative was the community? Did a wide spread of new ideas emerge from the community? What proportion of programs successfully explored new areas of development from the point of view of participants and community development agents?	Qualitative
	(e) Did mutual education occur? Was new unknown information about community disseminated so that people acquired a better understanding of community needs, issues?	Qualitative
	(f) Degree of increase over the program life in programs involving participation by the community at large?	Qualitative
4. Improved local decision-making processes	(a) Who makes decisions, - local leaders dominant groups or the majority of the community?	Qualitative

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Process Elements (1)	Item to be Considered (Questions) (2)	Nature of Possible Measures (3)
	(b) How are decisions made through an open or closed process? Do such efforts represent collaborative efforts and emphasize consensus?	Mixed
	(c) How broad is the decision-making base? - numbers, and type or nature of participants (e.g. seniors, youth)?	Mixed
	(d) What is the degree of local input and is it wholly or partially influenced by outside environments (e.g. government)?	Qualitative
	(e) What is the nature and ty pe of community structures? - community task forces - committees - public meetins (forums).	Qualitative
	(f) What is the amount of time required to process information?	Qualitative
5. Ability to maintain a viable community in relation to larger environment	(a) How effectively are social/political contacts made between communities and larger contexts (i.e. governments)?	Mixed
	(b) To what degree of success is the community able to attract funding, generate support by proposals from sources other than government?	Mixed

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Process Elements (1)	Item to be Considered (Question) (2)	Nature of Possible Measures (3)
	(c) How effective in attracting expertise from outside? - How is this expertise used and of what nature is it?	Qualitative
	(d) Degree of dependency upon larger environment - Who? the lesser the dependency the better?	Qualitative
6. Increase in Government and/or political commitment	(a) Degree of financial support from larger support agencies (e.g. government or local funding bodies?	Quantitative
	(b) Degree of political support from local groups? Did local elites support the program?	Mixed
	(c) Degree of political commitment outside the community? Did local politicians, bureaucrats, civil servants (e.g. planners) support the program?	Mixed

use made of it by a service organization can also be considered in an assessment.

Changes in administrative decision-making process (Table 2, p. 146) implies that for a program to maintain a true community development orientation, the administrator must maintain an "innovative" approach of working with people rather than for people. He must remain sensitive to people's needs by allowing them access and input into the decision-making processes for determining what programs a community needs and wants. The priorizing of programs prior to their implementation can be determined through the information collected by citizen surveys, community forums and interviews. The data collected from these sources are easily quantified (Table 2, p. 146a).

Who makes the decision at the local level (Table 2, p. 148a) can be determined by measuring the degree to which local leaders or dominant groups (e.g. upper classes) exist in a community and the amount of influence they have in directing the decisions made by the rest of the community members.

In short, Table 2 has outlined the dimensions of task and process and assigned to these two sets of objectives their related elements which describe the quantitative and qualitative changes to be effected in the individual and/or community group and in contextual factors internal or external to the community development program. Examples or quantitative and qualitative measures considered to be appropriate in evaluating a community development program were also specified.

The list of measures is not intended to be all inclusive, but to provide the evaluator with a more precise measuring base for conducting a systematic evaluation of the effects from community development programs.

SUMMARY

The framework outlined in this chapter has been designed for the evaluation of community development programs and its design has been based on those principles of social action research which appear to be most appropriate for handling the distinguishing characteristics of community development programs.

The framework identified the major evaluation components as the four evaluation levels - input, process, product, context - and corollary evaluation activities in the three evaluation stages (pre-formative, formative and summative). The procedures of the major evaluation components were synchronized into a systems-model approach which emphasizes constant feedback particularly in the process evaluation level and its related formative evaluation activities. This level has been the focal point of the framework in order to assess a program's success in terms of effecting both qualitative and quantitative changes upon program recipients. Dimensions of community development objectives were identified as task and process. Elements related to task and especially process objectives were identified, described and subsequently assigned

qualitative and/or qualitative measures in order to assess a program's success in terms of both qualitative and quantitative changes effected upon an individual and/or community, and also upon contextual factors. In short, the emphasis has been on the utilization of the systems approach, the process evaluation level and a consideration of the influence of context on perceiving the program as a success or failure. Hence, the framework in this chapter has been entitled a systems-process-context approach.

The purpose of the framework is threefold. It is hoped: first, that this approach will be a useful starting point towards developing more systematic evaluation methodologies which are greatly lacking in community development and in this way, contribute towards improving the practice of evaluation in this field; second, that this framework will be applied to actual case studies and the results of the assessment will be reported to others in the field, as it is only through practical experience that this framework can be modified and improved; and third, that it will encourage practitioners in other social development fields related to community development to design systematic evaluation procedures appropriate for handling the specific nature of their programs because, as Carter and Wharf (1973: 80) point out, it has remained a vexing problem that an evaluation framework appropriate for one type of program is inapplicable to another.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This thesis has been directed at examining the field of evaluation as it exists in theory and practice in social development fields, and more specifically, to ascertain its relationship to community development in order to develop a framework for evaluating programs in this field. From this examination can be drawn the following conclusions and recommendations.

Conclusions

It has become very apparent that the field of evaluation is a tremendously complex and fascinating area within which there exists in inexhaustible amount of literature. It is no accident that the field of evaluation has generated much interest over the past decade as social programs are expanding in numbers and subsequently there has arisen a demand from funding sources upon support agencies to demonstrate accountability of their programs.

The field of community development is feeling the same demands for accountability from its funding sources as its related social development fields but it still lags behind these areas in providing systematic evaluation approaches with which to assess the effects of its programs upon their

recipients. In light of this serious liability, it appears that community development practitioners over the past decade have attempted to generate more interest in evaluation studies within their field.

The result has been to apply the principles of social action research towards developing evaluation methodologies directly related to assessing the effects of community development programs. In this way, the field of community development is providing more systematic approaches to evaluations which can now be perceived of as a "science" and not as an "art". However, despite this significant "advancement" community development practitioners still remain reluctant to commit themselves towards defining common classifications, criteria, and indices which could be integrated into evaluation frameworks specifically designed for practical use in community development and it is this shortcoming which prompted this present thesis to begin development, tentatively, of such a framework.

The framework developed in this thesis focussed on borrowing and modifying from the knowledge base of social action research those principles which could be integrated into an approach that could most appropriately handle and evaluate the characteristics of community development programs. The framework emphasized that such an approach should encompass the issues in what appears to be the four major evaluation levels - input, process, product, context - and the activities in the pre-formative, formative and summative evaluation stages.

In this way, a systematic and objective framework was specifically developed to provide useful guidelines for the practitioner responsible for conducting a systematic evaluation of community development programs. However, as the systems-process-context approach is the first of its kind in the field of community development, certain limitations can inevitably be drawn from its conceptual basis. First, the emphasis in the framework has been on the formative activities in the process evaluation level which suggests that other frameworks could be similarly developed to investigate more thoroughly the pre-formative or summative evaluation stages. Second, the system-process-context approach has emphasized a descriptive research design which may fail to meet the needs of those requiring an experimental design for undertaking a more rigorous, statistically orientated analysis and therefore, its theoretical premises could be modified to meet the needs of such "scientifically" orientated researchers. Finally, the framework developed in this thesis is a static model which handles a dynamic process with all the limitations this implies. That is, a characteristics of evaluation research is that it takes place in an action setting. In other words, something else besides research is going on. For example, the institutional and power structures existing within and around the program can influence and complicate the evaluation process which creates a dilemma for the evaluator: how to remain close enough to such influences and issues from the program

environment in order to obtain information and insights necessary for undertaking a sensitive evaluation while, at the same time, keeping the research operation autonomous enough to protect its objectivity. The solution appears to be that, although the systems-process-context approach is potentially applicable in any evaluative situation (internal and external evaluator) this framework is probably best used by an independent evaluator who has the confidence of all parties holding some interest in the decision-making processes surrounding an evaluation. The role of such an evaluator would be to constantly interact and negotiate with all interest groups in the identification, specification and measurement of program objectives as held acceptable by all parties. In this way, conflict and discrepancies could be alleviated and as a result, any possible arising interferences and disruptions for research operations could be minimized.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggestions for improving the state of the evaluation practice in the field of community development. The author of this thesis recommends that:

1. The framework developed in this thesis be applied to case studies in order to test and determine its applicability for practical use in the evaluation of community development programs.

2. The Division of Community Development at the University of Alberta require that its M.A. students take a mandatory course in evaluation research. In this way, the students will be better prepared for future careers in a public or government community development agency which may require them to evaluate the effects of the programs they are responsible for implementing. The skills of evaluation research will enable future community development practitioners to measure the effects of related programs and hence, to meet the demands of accountability from funders as clearly, when the monies become scarce they are allocated only to those who can best demonstrate advantageous results.

3. It would be advisable for graduate students in community development to hold a voluntary association or practicum with a community development agency such as the Edmonton Social Planning Council. A practicum would provide students with an opportunity to utilize theoretical skills in a practical situation, such as assisting in the writing of evaluation reports.

4. The development of more specialized evaluation organizations is encouraged (e.g. Ontario Institute of Studies in Education) and particularly one for the field of community development. In this way, a central resource center will be created towards which the community can look for reference material, consultation and possible contract work. It appears that the Edmonton Social Planning Council is making a

significant effort towards developing such a center.

5. The results of evaluation sutdies should be disseminated more effectively to and beyond the community level. The benefits from sharing ideas and problems related to evaluation studied can lead to more comparative studies which will provide useful information in adding to the knowledge base and providing more useful guidelines for funding agents.

6. Finally, it is suggested that community development researchers ensure that evaluation results are disseminated to the people of a community in a language and form that they can easily comprehend.

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APPENDIX

APPLYING THE SYSTEMS-PROCESS-CONTEXT APPROACH: THE CASE OF THE VOLUNTEER TRAINING PROGRAM

Introduction

The purpose of this appendix is to describe how the framework developed in this thesis might be applied to a case study. It is not a detailed application but a general discussion of how the quantitative and qualitative measures within the systems-process-context approach could be applied to a real program.

The case study of The Volunteer Training Program has been selected from amongst the various community development programs that are implemented and supported by the Edmonton Social Planning Council. The following discussion will briefly describe The Volunteer Training Program and then apply most of those questions which were listed under items to be considered in Table 2 (Chapter 4) to this particular case.

Program Description

The Volunteer Training Program is directed at a core group of people from voluntary organizations and community groups in Edmonton who have expressed an interest to the Social Planning Council in obtaining additional skills in small group leadership, research and knowledge of locations and use of community resources. The program provides its support and training to volunteer groups through a series of workshops which are organized by staff of the Council. The workshops incorporate such items as films, presentations by speakers, and informal discussions between program staff and recipients

which center around such issues as: how to mobilize and organize a community; how to tap local and city-wide resources; how to discover community needs and how to plan the best ways to meet these; how to understand human group dynamics; how to understand systems (e.g. social, economic, political, cultural, physical); and finally, how to analyze policy. The workshops are intended to help people to discover more effective and satisfying ways of doing their tasks, thereby ultimately improving their programs for their clients.

An Application of The Systems-Process-Context Approach to The Volunteer Training Program

In discussing the application of the systems-process-context approach to The Volunteer Training Program, reference will be made to the questions listed under items to be considered in Table 2 (pp. 144-150). In this way an illustration will be given of how the framework developed in this thesis could be utilized to evaluate a community development project.

We begin by considering those items/questions which measure the effects of a service. It appears that the program reflects a true community development orientation (1,2,a).[1] The types and numbers of recipients from the service (1,2,6) can be easily identified upon examination of those people making up the core group of interested volunteers. Also, it appears that the service is made accessible to the entire

[1] Throughout this appendix the number and letters in parentheses refer to the columns in Table 2 of this thesis.

community through flyers and pamphlets circulated in the communities by the Edmonton Social Planning Council (E.S.P.C.). The visible effects of the service on recipients (1,2,6) can be determined by examining the degree to which their participation and involvement in other related learning experiences within the community changes. The service appears to have a sound basis (1,2,d), since, financially, it is supported by the E.S.P.C. which receives its monies from the United Way and City grants. In addition, community support is continually supplemented by those interested in volunteer groups behind the program. A self-evaluation process (1,2,e) is undertaken by the program recipients who are asked to describe to the E.S.P.C. staff how they perceived changes in their community involvement as a result of having taken part in the program. Expansion of the service warranted in terms of population increase or decrease (1,2,f) is not a directly relevant measure as the expansion of the program is usually dependent on the degree of interest expressed by people in need of the service, regardless of population size.

In the case of The Volunteer Training Program, most questions listed under items to be considered related to measuring facilities are not applicable as it is not a facility orient program. Thus, reference to where the program workshops are held (e.g. Grant McEwan college) and the frequency of their use can be employed to measure whether there are a sufficient number of facilities to accommodate the program

service in the community (2,2,a).

The third set of items to be considered relates to changes in administrative decision-making processes. In the case of The Volunteer Training Program, it appears that relatively formal techniques are used to collect information prior to the implementation of a program (1,2,a) such as telephone-inquiries. The information collected appears to be clear (1,2,b) as the questions posed (e.g. "Do you belong to a group that would like this training?", or "Would you like to be part of our training team?") are easily understood and answered by volunteers. Responses to the information (1,2,c) are representative of input from special groups in the community. An evaluation process does occur (1,2,d) the results of which appears to aid the E.S.P.C. staff in distilling the numbers of alternatives reflecting the priorities identified by the community groups. It is these priority areas which are discussed in the workshops. Collaborative efforts between specialist and community groups (1,2,e) appear to occur as reflected in the Board-Staff Workshops whereby both staff and volunteers work out establishing the areas of felt needs. The nature of contact between client groups and administrators (1,2,f) is primarily in terms of informal discussions which facilitate input from both sides into the administrative decision-making process.

The next concern is with the degree of enhancement in the individual's personal condition. In the case of The

Volunteer Training Program, it is not difficult to identify the types of people involved in the program in terms of their numbers, age, class, socio-economic status, marital status, and cultural background (2,2,a). It appears that behavioural changes are measured by the E.S.P.C. staff who ask the volunteers to describe how they perceive changes in their behaviour as a result of having taken part in the program. The following list of quotations and reactions cover a wide variety of behavioural changes (e.g. in knowledge, skills, aspirations and attitudes) which could indicate the success of the program in creating an impact within the community. This could also suggest directions for the future improvement of the program.

> "I will be less frustrated because I have learned how to show change is."
>
> "I have been able to hold better meetings, get more data and had better participation by those attending."
>
> "Volunteers are made to feel important and this gives me more confidence to tackle other commitments."
>
> "Time is spent in a nice effective manner, that's very satisfying to me."
>
> "I appreciate being able to understand a philosophy and put it into action in practical terms (e.g. planning a conference)."
>
> "I must be seen to be more aware and competent because I have been asked to accept a great leadership role in my community."
>
> "I am better prepared to work with other volunteers successfully."

"I am not doing more but have a better understanding of what I am doing and why."2

The measurement of changes reflecting an improving sense of community identity is the fifth area of concern. Examples of self-help schemes (3,2,a) such as rape crisis centres, and day care centres, exist in the community as a result of trainees from the program having made use of local community resources. The core group of volunteers participating in the program are those local leaders who are employed to a large degree in mobilizing the community towards action (3,2,b). Moreover, they appear to have been effective in their efforts (3,2,c) as more people have expressed an interest to the E.S.P.C. in becoming involved in the program. It appears that the program has prompted citizens to become creative in spreading ideas and exploring new areas of development (3,2,d) as exemplified in the setting up of a community theatre in Montrose. A mutual education process is provided in the program workshops which disseminate information, relating to such matters as community planning techniques, that are relevant to creating within the program recipients a better understanding of current community issues and the ways to meet needs (3,2,d). The program life has increased since it began in 1977 providing an opportunity for more citizens to participate in it (3,2,c).

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[2]Edmonton Social Planning Council, Proposal Development Regarding Community Development Corporation Implementation in Edmonton, (Edmonton) p. 8.

The next area of concern is with the measurement of improvements (if any) in local decision-making processes. It is the volunteers in the core groups who dominate the decision-making (4,2,a) which are essentially of an open kind, reflecting collaborative efforts and consensus (4,2,b). The decision-making base appears to be quite broad (4,2,c) as it is open to any number of the various types of interested citizens. Input into the decision-making processes is partially obtained from the E.S.P.C. staff (4,2,d) who encourage and train the volunteer to understand the effects of their decisions in the larger environments (e.g. government). Citizen commissions and community task forces are those structures (4,2,e) which are used in the decision-making processes revolving around major policy issues in the community.

The ability to maintain a viable community in relation to the larger environment is the penultimate area of concern. In the case of The Volunteer Training Program, it appears that it has been effective in creating social/political contacts between communities and agencies/groups in the larger contexts (5,2,a). For example, trainees of the program have been asked to assist other communities in setting up a group of seminars in community planning and have led volunteer groups from all over Edmonton in the Mayor's Conference on Neighbourhood Planning. It appears that the program has generated support from sources other than government (5,2,b) and has been effective in attracting expertise from outside

the E.S.P.C. (5,2,c). For example personnel from the Provincial Department of Preventive, Social Services, have examined and used the evaluation methods employed in The Volunteer Training Programs. The degree of dependency of the program on the larger environment by the E.S.P.C. staff (5,2,d) appears to be lessening. That is, because of a shortage of staff to implement Volunteer Training Programs, the E.S.P.C. is sending "packages" to the communities. These "packages" include written material on what seminars and workshops should cover. It then becomes the responsibility of the community groups to implement the Training Programs themselves based on the information supplied in the "packages".

The final concern is with increased government and/or political commitment. In the case of the program, it appears that financial support from governmental agencies has been and is being acquired (6,2,a) as well as political support from local groups (6,2,b). There is also political commitment from outside the community (6,2,c). The Edmonton Social Planning Council recognizes that if voluntary efforts are to become effective at implementing change, they must meet the demands of the larger societal milieu. In order to achieve this, an underlying philosophy behind The Volunteer Training Program is that trainees should be encouraged to make contacts with local politicians, bureaucrats, civil servants and other local elite groups all of whose political and financial support is beneficial to the continuance of the programs that

volunteers initiate.

In summary and conclusion, it appears that, prima facie at least, those quantitative and qualitative measures outlined in the systems-process-context approach can be applied to evaluating the effects of change initiated by a real program.